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ABSTRACT

These proceedings contain the following papers: "Corporate Conduct: The Importance of Proper Etiquette and Communication" (Glenna A. Dod and Susan L. Fay); "Establishing a System for Technical Editing" (Marlene A. Hobel and Kathy L. Urbach); "Office Technology in Business Communication Textbooks: Current Status, Future Recommendations" (Richard M. Hodgetts and Jane Whitney Gibson); "Nonverbally Speaking--You Ought to Be in Pictures" (Bonnie Bellamy Howard and Alexa Bryans North); "Teaching Communication Techniques through Video" (Jennie Hunter); "Teaching Business Report Writing Deductively" (Thomas P. Loughman); "Biased Language in the Workplace: Are Managers Meeting the Challenge?" (Linda S. Munilla and Lloyd N. Dosier); "Bringing the Technology of Telecommunications into Business Communication" (Judy C. Nixon and Judy F. West); "The Impact of Deregulation and Divestiture on Telecommunication Systems and Networks" (Binford H. Peeples and Glynna E. Morse); "The Effect of Style on Memory and Comprehension: Results of an Exploratory Research Project" (Dwayne Pepper and Kenneth R. McCroan); "Writing for Publication" (Betty R. Ricks); "Check Your Communication Skills: Will You Survive as a Manager" (Carolyn Roberts); "One Project with Collaborative Writing" (Deborah Britt Roebuck); "Ethics: Codes, Crimes, and Communication" (Gary H. Shaw); and "Job Application Forms: The Good, The Bad, and The Ugly" (Mark Sherman). An appendix contains the program of activities at the conference, with the names of participants. (SR)

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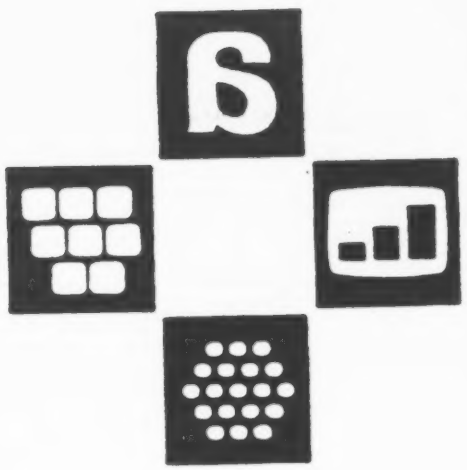

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PREFACE

"Communication Technology in Action" was the theme of the 1988 Southeast Regional Conference of the Association for Business Communication which was held in Tampa, Florida. It was a memorable meeting for many loyal members, and the fellowship is indeed important. ABC is a professional organization, and its strength lies mainly in the exchange of information and ideas by means of paper presentations and reactions.

The Proceedings of the 1988 Southeastern Regional Conference of the Association for Business Communication will serve as a tangible and lasting record of this important meeting. Many people made significant contributions to the success of the program by preparing and presenting papers. Others served as session coordinators, administrative assistants, or filled other vital roles. We wish to acknowledge the valuable services rendered by our reviewers, who were accorded "anonymous status." The program of activities with the names of the participants is included in the Appendix of the Proceedings as a means of recognizing with gratitude the efforts and achievements of many persons.

We especially wish to recognize Dr. Ruth Walsh for her dedication and hard work. Through her efforts and organization, the 1988 Southeastern Regional Conference was a special function for all of us.

Binford H Peeples and
Glynna E. Morse, Co-Editors

Fogelman College of Business
and Economics
Memphis State University
Memphis, TN 38152
1988

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CORPORATE CONDUCT: THE IMPORTANCE OF PROPER ETIQUETTE AND COMMUNICATION

Glenna A. Dod, Wesleyan College
Susan L. Fay, Wesleyan College

ABSTRACT

Several aspects of the emerging emphasis on corporate conduct in businesses' internal and external environments are worthy of attention. Important internal factors of emphasis are employer-employee communication, social decorum, and consistent manners. Included in the external factors are letter-writing, telephone courtesy, social skills, and public-interactive skills applicable in the business world. These characteristics combine to form a more effective and pleasant organization.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Proper etiquette and communication have been important aspects of civilized life since ancient times. Often originally attributed to nobles and members of royal courts, social customs quickly made their way into many facets of life, including business practices. Through time, almost every aspect of social interaction in the business arena has been analyzed and recorded. Changing cultures and values, however, have drastically altered the business protocol of the present.

In more modern times such as the 1950's, personal and proper etiquette was in vogue and carried over into business as well, emphasizing pleasantries and respect of others. The 1960's and 1970's, however, played a major role in the eradication of these values. As a result, the managers of the 1980's are comprised of very diverse backgrounds: older managers in top-level positions possess more traditional standards of manners than do young managers in first level positions [4, p. 3]. This is due to the changing cultural values and influences. The current trend in etiquette is an attempt to reconcile these extremes and to create a respectable business environment. As America moves toward a service-oriented economy, the emphasis on correct social actions and on clear communication will increase dramatically.

IMPORTANT INTERNAL FACTORS OF CONDUCT AND COMMUNICATION

Social Decorum

"Etiquette literacy" is becoming as important to business as is computer literacy [11, p. 35]. To help satisfy the demand for advice on business etiquette, Southern Ohio College instituted the "At Ease Hotline," [11, p. 35] a service that provides etiquette solutions for "socially klutzy executives" [11, p. 35]. Social skills, such as event protocol and recognition of achievements, also contribute to employee morale and raise an organization's reputation, thus keeping a qualified, competent, and innovative employee pool.

Focusing on attention to detail, event protocol covers everything from choosing invitations to "posting the flags properly for one's company's civic function in a hotel ballroom" [4, p. 191]. It is based on the belief that "there is a great deal more to successful business entertaining than merely having champagne and caviar on the menu" [4, p. 191]. Planning for seating, menus, and general event logistics comprises the concept of protocol and can make a significant difference in the overall success of an event. Organizations that are highly regarded in society often give great emphasis to detail and are known for their skillful consideration of logistics. Protocol, like corporate manners, does not stifle innovation in corporate culture; instead it is complementary [4, p. 192].

Achievement recognition is crucial to the family atmosphere that many firms cultivate. Whether an honor, an anniversary, a wedding, or a birth, recognition by one's organization builds esteem and loyalty to the company. The executives of a successful organization utilize this and let their subordinates know that they are appreciated.

Consistent Manners

Good relations with employees and superiors help to improve the quality of life in the organization, increase employee morale, and strengthen the company's image [4, p. 3]. Consideration and appreciation for those in one's environment are the tenets of basic etiquette, especially in the business realm. Competent communication is directly related to business manners: as Letitia Baldrige states, "it is impossible to divorce good business behavior from good character and kindness" [4, p. 13].

Hectic schedules and short notice do not merit inconsiderate behavior to one's fellow workers. Since people in one's immediate work area are familiar with flaws as well as work habits and attitudes, it is important to be courteous at all times, regardless of the events of the day. Self-control, concern for others, and consciousness of image should be exhibited "day by day" [7, p. 16]. Expressions of appreciation and genuine concern for one's secretarial staff and fellow workers will encourage them and will promote a friendly atmosphere of goodwill in the organization.

A sense of team spirit and the utilization of the you-viewpoint are important to foster the morale of others, thus increasing the cohesiveness of the group and leading to a more pleasant atmosphere in organizations. Good manners which lead to these characteristics do not imply stiff social standards;

they simply require the use of "self-control, respect, and concern for others" [6, p. 48]. They also create social order and a healthy environment, which in turn make people feel "comfortable and confident" [6, p. 50].

Respect for superiors comprises another relevant perspective of executive manners. Letitia Baldridge emphasizes the concept of deference, "high regard and respect owed an elder or superior," [4, p. 25] and suggests that executives communicate this respect through their conduct. Actions such as standing when a superior enters one's office and waiting to be directed to a seat at meetings convey this regard [4, p. 19].

These factors in the successful corporate environment require leaders that are compassionate, caring, consistent, intense, and attentive in their leadership and interactive roles [10, p. 265]. If these leaders provide examples of correct business manners and effective communication with others, members of their organizations will imitate these examples, thus transforming the quality of life in the workplaces and ultimately making organizations more productive. As Letitia Baldridge says, "good business manners are truly cost-effective" [4, p. 3]. Although profits may not be directly affected by good manners, conduct makes the business environment a more effective and pleasant place [6, p. 50].

CRUCIAL EXTERNAL FACTORS OF ETIQUETTE AND INTERACTION

Effective Letter Writing

To be truly competent, executives must be able to use words effectively, whether in speaking or in writing. Since correspondence is often an activity used to communicate with persons outside one's organization, care should be taken to present the organization professionally, even in the most mundane letters. Correct business etiquette is crucial in this area of communication.

Letters should be concise and have no highly technical words and terms which detract from their aims. Peter Baida, in his editorial about the present state of business letters says that "the language of modern business is a language of colorless jargon and mind-numbing abstractions" [2, p. 12]. Mr. Baida recounts having received correspondence "so swollen with managerial babble" that they struck him as "the literary equivalent of assault with a deadly weapon" [2, p. 12]. With ever-increasing demands on executives' time, concisely and clearly written letters are a must for efficient communication. Poor letters reflect inadequate writing skills and, increasingly, poor business manners.

The same positive tone given in person should also be conveyed in written communication. The you-viewpoint plays a large part in the composition of a well-written letter and this quality of communication is essential to effectiveness [1, p. 3]. Regardless of style, readers will appreciate "consideration, tact, and respect" [1, p. 8]. This type of behavior is also cost-effective: "well-informed people work better" [4, p. 198].

Telephone Courtesy

Communication via telephone is probably the most common method of interaction between the organization and the public. The average executive spends 2.3 hours per day on the telephone [8, p. 1]. Thus, proper telephone conduct must be finely honed and practiced. Much of this conduct is simply "clear logic, common sense, and consideration for others" [3, p. 18].

The telephone is often the only medium used for communication with an organization and the first impression an outsider should receive is one of cheerful competency. Management should be aware of "how the telephone is handled throughout the company in order to know what types of attitudes are being projected to the public" [4, p. 83]. Successful organizations enhance telephone communication by using people with clear, pleasant voices as well as helpful and energetic attitudes. According to Letitia Baldridge, all calls should be handled "graciously, productively, and profitably" [4, p. 84]. Robert Levy calls for every business person to utilize these standards in order to facilitate pleasant communications internally as well as externally [9, p. 95]. These approaches are especially crucial with the advent of call screening.

Call screening has become popular and sometimes necessary for executives in the United States. If executed properly and with courtesy, call screening can be efficient and helpful; however, if improperly handled, it can cause a "frustrating waste of time" [5, p. 15] for the caller. Consideration for others, empathy and a willingness to assist callers as well as a genuine interest in their requests are quite necessary for correctly handled call screening. Since this area of conduct is in direct interaction with the public, its emphasis is especially important.

Social and Public-Interactive Skills

Social skills in the external domain require even more attention to detail than do those of the internal sphere. The organization's public image is on display at these types of functions, and precise care should be taken in order to consider even the smallest items. Etiquette and protocol bring "order and dignity" to events [6, p. 48]. Corporate protocol is especially important if the event includes stockholders, customers, or the board of directors because incorrectly executed events could cause the organization to lose these stockholders, customers, or even directors, thus bruising the organization's reputation and possibly, in the long term, the organization's profits. To this effect, Joanne Ciulla says that "bad manners are bad for business" [6, p. 46].

Public-interactional skills are formed by an aggregate of the skills previously mentioned such as event protocol, telephone etiquette, and effectively written communication. When dealing with the public, the eradication of what Tom Peters and Nancy Austin call "thinly disguised contempt" [10, p. 42] is essential to an organization's healthy public image. "Thinly disguised contempt" [10, p. 42] is defined as the disdain that employees hold for the public [10, p. 43]. This dislike is evident in employees' apathetic attitudes and inadequate customer service. These attitudes are easily recognizable to the public and the organization's image can suffer a severe setback through only one evidence of "thinly disguised contempt" [10, p. 42].

In order to maximize the organization's goodwill and to maintain its reputation, public-interactive skills are incorporated into many areas that are not directly associated with the organization, such as community involvement. The recreational attitudes and manners that the organization's representatives display reflect upon the organization and its standards. Successful companies encourage the community interaction of their employees and often extend incentives such as the payment of dues to foster this involvement. Not only does the organization's public image often benefit from these types of involvement but employee morale and satisfaction are often elevated as well.

SUMMARY

Proper corporate etiquette and communications are increasingly important factors of a successful organization. With the return of more traditional values comes a need for impeccable business manners and attention to details. These manners arise from a basis of concern for others, appreciation of their skills, and a genuine interest in their well-being. Several important aspects of corporate conduct within the organization as well as outside the organization contribute to the achievement of a more effective and pleasant organization.

Important internal factors include consistent courtesy to coworkers and social skills such as event protocol. External factors of importance include letter-writing skills, telephone courtesy, social decorum, and public-interactive skills. These internal and external factors form a framework for correct business etiquette that is applicable to many aspects of corporate culture. Emphasis on corporate manners will continue to increase in importance due to the emphasis on America's service economy. Thus, proper corporate conduct is crucial to future effectiveness and, ultimately, success in the business realm.

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ESTABLISHING A SYSTEM FOR TECHNICAL EDITING

Marlene A. Hobel & Kathy L. Urbach
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Scenario 1

Technical editor receives manuscript. Client expects manuscript next day. Manuscript is a mess. Although formatted as an analytical report, it contains no data and merely explains procedures.

Editor tries not to panic.

Editor realizes that if the client receives a report, he expects to see data. Editor changes manuscript to a status memorandum. Editor reorganizes, reworks, cuts, pastes, and rewrites. Manuscript is reduced from 14 pages of repetition to 6 pages of clear, concise information.

Editor is proud. Editor expects praise. What does the editor hear? "There's a typo on page 3!"

Scenario 2

Technical editor receives manuscript. It is 300 pages and due to the client in 2 days.

Editor proofreads carefully and catches 146 typos. Editor proudly submits manuscript to client.

This time the editor is sure to hear praise. What does the editor hear? "This document doesn't say anything...It's difficult to read...The format is inappropriate."

These scenarios are common occurrences in offices without established editing systems. By not having a system, the professionals involved waste time, feel frustrated, and produce an inferior product.

The opening scenarios had become all too familiar at our environmental engineering consulting firm. We had begun hiring technical editors in late 1983, and using an editor was still a relatively new concept. While most engineers believed editors could help improve their reports, many did not understand exactly *how* we could help. What could we do, and how long would it take? Their concepts of help ranged from guarded requests for simple proofreading to free license for total rewriting. Further, they did not have a clear idea of the time required for editing tasks, and our editors shared this uncertainty.

It soon became clear that we had to develop a system for technical editing. The system would have to provide a definition of editing as well as establish time estimates for editing tasks. Our long-term goal was to establish a common time-versus-quality system for technical editing.

Currently, we have nine editors distributed among seven branch offices. The ratio of engineers to editors is about 30:1, and in most cases a single editor handles all editing tasks within a branch office.

There was a definite advantage to having our editors follow a common editing system -- by promoting a standard hierarchy of editing tasks and corresponding time estimates, editing in our Atlanta office would closely resemble editing in the Tampa office, just as engineering tasks are parallel among offices. As Masse [1] stated, "Editors need organized approaches to editing...because a shotgun approach to editing only confuses a writer."

WHERE DO WE START?

The first task was to get our editors to agree on a common system. This was accomplished through an editors' workshop. We began our workshop much the same as we began this paper--by sharing frustrations with the editing paradox of time-versus-quality and exploring the benefits of having an editing system.

Our next workshop activity was to examine and evaluate some systems gathered from the literature [2; 3; 4] and from our own editors. Six systems were presented in which editing time estimates ranged from 2 pages/hour to 50 pages/hour. This diversity signaled a problem--how could these systems be so disparate, and how could all of us agree on a common system? Could we even agree on a definition of editing? From this exercise, we established three basic tenets:

- Editing activities range from simple to complex and can best be viewed as a hierarchy of editing levels.
- A good editing system will detail and define the activities to be accomplished in each level of editing.
- Each level must be assigned a credible time range.

We also agreed that Buehler's system of editing levels [5] offered the most comprehensive system and provided the greatest detail on the editing activities encompassed by each level. We, therefore, chose Buehler's system as the model for developing our own editing system. Buehler's system, however, did not offer time estimates for editing levels.

Although all of the editors agreed that the utopian arrangement would be to have enough time to edit towards perfection, this was not the case. According to Kantrowitz [6], "In real world situations, most editors find that treatment of a manuscript cannot be governed solely by the ideals of good writing, organization, and mechanics." Recognizing that no two manuscripts are alike, we brainstormed some of the factors that could affect the time it takes to edit. Factors such as multiple authors, report type, stage at which the editor becomes involved, standard versus variable format, and client expectations were considered. These factors indicated the need for a time range for each editing level, a range that is credible but allows leeway for manuscript variations.

Up to this point, the group seemed in agreement on most issues. The next exercise was a test of unity. The editors were given a brief report section and asked to estimate the time it would take to edit the full report to an acceptable quality. After the variable factors were discussed, all the editors' time estimates were surprisingly close. Through our common experience, we had reached a consensus on an editing system. We had only to define the levels in language we all found comfortable and assign our time ranges for each level.

We established the following system and circulated it to each editor's branch office manager:

Level of Edit	Time
I. Proofreading	**10-12 pages/hour**
Proofreading involves reading the document for typos, inconsistencies, and blatant errors.	
II. Integrity and Format	**7-10 pages/hour**
The integrity and format edit first involves a matching function. The editor ensures, for example, that when the text refers to Figure 1, there really is a Figure 1 and it is in the right place. The same matching function is applied to tables, references, footnotes, appendices, report sections and subsections, tables of contents, etc. The editor also ensures that the document conforms to the established format for headings, margins, type styles, etc.	
III. Screening and Language	**5-7 pages/hour**
The screening and language edit includes the elimination of misspelled words, subject-verb disagreements, incomplete sentences, incomprehensible statements, etc. Also included is the full treatment of grammar, punctuation, language usage, and parallelism.	
IV. Comprehensive	**2-5 pages/hour**
The comprehensive edit deals with the content of the report. It does not include a review for technical accuracy. This level emphasizes appropriate organization, ensuring that the material is grouped and subdivided in a rational manner, that apparent contradictions and inconsistencies are resolved, and that the presentation is complete, concise, and coherent. A rewrite may be included. *Ideally, all documents should receive a comprehensive edit.*	

IS ANYONE LISTENING?

Now that we had a system, we were faced with marketing that system to our co-workers so that they would be informed about the different editing levels and time constraints, and could make wise choices for their editing requirements. Again, a workshop format seemed the most appropriate, and we chose to conduct it with the branch office staff.

To establish some common ground, we asked the branch manager to select three reports (two good and one bad) for all participants to evaluate prior to our workshop. We gave them a list of 10

communication success factors to use as the basis of their evaluation. These 10 factors were: (1) logical organization; (2) concise, complete presentation; (3) audience awareness; (4) readability and coherence; (5) grammar and punctuation; (6) style and usage; (7) spelling and typos; (8) format consistency; (9) integrity; and (10) appearance.

During the workshop, we focused on the best report and identified how this success was achieved. Oddly enough, the excellent report had received a comprehensive edit, with the editor involved from outline through final production. This led us to a productive discussion about what the technical staff thought editing could and should do for a report.

Our next consideration was time--how long does successful editing take? Some minor duplicity helped make the point that editing takes time and that lack of time will diminish quality. Participants were asked to edit a single page of poorly written technical prose. All started the task enthusiastically, but were chagrined when told 30 seconds later that their time was up. The point was clear--this is what can be expected when a technical editor is asked to edit a 100-page report in about an hour, not an uncommon request.

What we had established, then, was that a certain level of effort is required for a quality document, and that editing takes time, more time than they were accustomed to allowing. We then reviewed the levels of editing and corresponding time estimates and established an action plan for implementing the system within the branch office.

IS ANYONE STILL LISTENING?

We discovered that implementing the editing system within a branch office was contingent upon the three P's--paper work, performance, and public relations.

Paperwork

We realized that if we were to have a system, we would have to keep some records. Our record-keeping goals were twofold: to verify the existence of the system and to track our progress. To verify the system, we created a form (Figure 1) to record when a document was submitted for editing, when it was due to the client, and who the authors were. The form also contained various other specifications, including the number of pages, figures, and tables in the document and the document type. This was the easy part. To track our progress, the form included the level of edit requested by the author, the level supplied by the editor, and the total editing hours accumulated. We also added a space for comments and a checklist of 10 communication success factors.

While the form is completed by the editor for each document, the writer also has access to it. By realizing that a level of edit must be chosen, writers will become more cognizant of time and quality constraints and the benefits of a comprehensive edit. As editors, we can track our progress, document our successes and failures, and modify the system as necessary.

Performance

We also realized that to successfully implement the editing system, the editor's performance must meet or exceed the levels of edit within the established timeframes. To ensure credibility, we must do what we say that we can do. We must be good editors! We must be consistent in the performance of our job as well as our record keeping.

In addition, we must be excellent time managers and develop the ability to prioritize. As Van Buren and Buehler [4] suggest, "Every organization imposes its own pragmatic requirements on the technical editor. Probably the main characteristic of the editorial process is the fact that the quality of effort--the depth to which it is performed--is contingent on other priorities."

DOCUMENT REVIEW FORM

Document Title: _____

Document Type: ☐ Draft ☐ Final

Project Manager: _____

Author(s): _____

Date Submitted for Editing: _____

Deadline: _____

Specifications: ___ Pages ___ Figures ___ Tables

Level of Editing:	Requested	Completed
Level 1: Proofreading		
Level 2: Integrity & Format		
Level 3: Screening & Language		
Level 4: Comprehensive		

Total Editing Hours _____

Comments:

Communication Checklist

Communication Success Factors	
Logical Organization	
Concise, Complete Presentation	
Audience Awareness	
Readability, Coherence	
Grammar & Punctuation	
Style & Usage	
Spelling & Typos	
Format Consistency	
Integrity	
Appearance	

FIGURE 1
DOCUMENT REVIEW FORM

Public Relations

Again, to implement and maintain the system, we must diligently continue to market it. And to market the system, we must market ourselves. We must develop positive, professional relationships with our co-workers. We, therefore, must be organized and approachable, as well as empathic and perceptive. As Plotnik [7] says, "Perception for editors means hearing what the author is trying to say while keeping an ear tuned to the sensibilities of the readers. Listening to the author requires empathy and a suppression of ego."

To further market ourselves, we must also market our successes. Documents proving that technical editing was successfully applied should be publicized. Individuals who cooperate and work with the system should be commended.

WHAT HAVE WE LEARNED?

The establishment of a system for technical editing is an ongoing process. So far, however, the outcome has been positive and our system has accomplished many of its goals. It has succeeded in demystifying the editing process for our technical staff by explaining the various activities that make up "editing." The engineers, now, are able to choose editing levels based on time and quality expectations. Also, the editors who have implemented the system are much happier.

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OFFICE TECHNOLOGY IN BUSINESS COMMUNICATION TEXTBOOKS: CURRENT STATUS, FUTURE RECOMMENDATIONS

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Jane Whitney Gibson, Nova University

INTRODUCTION

Over the last decade technology has had a major effect on office productivity. This effect can be examined in terms of two factors: technical and human. From a technical standpoint, microcomputers, PBXs, voice mail, facsimile equipment, and laserprinters, to name but five, have changed the way the modern office functions. From a human standpoint, technology has often posed a threat to the personnel. Many have been fearful that they will be replaced by high tech equipment; others have been concerned that they will be unable to master the mechanics (or finer points) of the machinery and thus be regarded as incompetent.

The purpose of this paper is to examine the status of office technology in business communications textbooks, to address the adequacy of this coverage in providing an up-to-date picture of what is being presented, and to offer suggestions regarding how these texts can more effectively handle this area in the future. It is our belief that within the next 2-3 years all business communications texts will be addressing at least the rudiments of office technology, but this is not enough. There are more macro issues that need to be considered. The following examines these in more depth.

THE ELECTRONIC OFFICE

The electronic office is an all-encompassing term. It generally refers to the use of state-of-the-art technology to link together the five major areas of office work: (a) inputing the information that is to be communicated; (b) producing this information in finished form; (c) storing the data while it is being produced and/or maintaining a backup file for safety purpose and/or future reference; (d) reproducing the information when it must be sent to multiple users; and (e) distributing or transmitting the information to those for whom it is intended.

Inputing Of Information

Data that is entered into a word/information processing system is known as input. There are many ways of doing this. In the electronic

office, some of the most common include: dictation equipment, optical character recognition equipment, calculators, adding machines, and other keyboard devices such as typewriters, word/information processors, and small business computers.

Production of Information

The keyboard devices mentioned above also are useful in producing information. For example, typewriters can be used to produce letters and small business computers can be used to produce extensive financial reports. The major technological breakthrough over the last decade has been the introduction of word processors and microcomputers into the work place. In comparing these developments with their predecessors, there are a number of differences including: (a) visual display units that allow the person to see the information that is being inputed (a good example being a microcomputer with a cathode ray tube) and to make changes before final editing; (b) stand-alone systems that have all of the equipment needed for processing information contained within the system; and (c) shared systems that use a central computer to process messages (a good example being a series of microcomputers that are linked to the central terminal and use the latter to process and store information).

Storage Of Information

While written business communications are forwarded to the party for whom they are intended, it is typical also to find a backup copy being kept by the writer. The most common form of storage is the file cabinet but in the electronic office other storage methods are also employed. In many cases floppy diskettes (both 5 1/4" and 3 1/2") are used for storing the original message and for backing it up, as well as for storage purposes. Organizations that use hard disks rely on the floppy for backup and storage.

Producing/Reproducing Of Output

There are a number of different forms of office technology that are used in producing the output. One of the most common is the typewriter which, for example, serves as both an input and an output device. As information is inputed via a pressing of the keys, output is produced simultaneously in the form of typed output. In addition to typewriters, some of the most common forms of production/reproduction include printers (dot matrix, daisy wheel, and laser), carbon paper, carbonless copy sets, photocopiers, mimeograph machines, ditto machines, and audio/video recorders.

Distribution Or Transmission Of Output

The final step in the production/reproduction process is the distribution or transmission of the message. While many organizations rely on a physical distribution system to handle part of this chore, a large percentage is taken care of via electronic delivery systems. There are a multitude of technological devices that can be found in the electronic office including: telephones, PBXs, PABXs, teletypewriters,

electronic mail, data phones, facsimile equipment, and teleconferencing equipment.

Applications Of Office Technology

There are many applications of office technology. One of the most common is the use of personal computers for wordprocessing. This development has brought about a typewriter revolution because of the increase in speed and flexibility coupled with the ease of operation and low cost associated with the micros. Another application has been the use of electronic mail which reduces the need for intraorganizational memos and telephone messages. A third is the use of facsimile transmission which allows printed documents as well as photographs, pictures, and drawings to be transmitted electronically. The latest development in facsimile technology permits users to copy printed material directly into the computer so that documents that originally were typed and are now to be placed on a floppy for storage do not have to be retyped. A fourth application is the use of the computer modem to allow computer information to be sent over telephone lines to a computer at the other end. A fifth application is teleconferencing which is a form of electronically aided two-way communications. Video teleconferencing in the form of closed-circuit TV has gained in popularity as the associated costs have declined.

COVERAGE IN CURRENT TEXTBOOKS

While the above represent some of the most common uses of office technology, coverage of these topics varies by textbook. Table 1 provides a content analysis of office technology as provided by twenty texts. (See Appendix for a list of these texts.) These books have been arrayed along a time continuum thus allowing for a comparison of information as well as an evaluation of the changes that have taken place in terms of topic coverage.

Trends

There are three trends that are evident from Table 1. First, prior to 1980 there was very little consideration of office technology in business communications texts.

Second, beginning in the early 1980s technology started to become a focal point of attention. The most common area of consideration was dictating equipment including such topics as: (a) how to use dictating equipment, and (b) techniques that make dictating easier.

Third, since 1984 office technology has become a topic of consideration in most business communications texts. The most frequently addressed areas are: dictating equipment, electronic distribution systems, microcomputers, telecommunications, word processing, and work stations.

TABLE 1

TECHNOLOGY-RELATED TOPICS COVERED IN BUSINESS COMMUNICATIONS TEXTS

Author	Chapter on Technology?	Pages on Technology	Technology Topics Covered
1977-1979			
Bowman & Branchaw	no	none	none
Janis	no	none	none
1980-1983			
Baird & Stull	no	1	15
Lesikar	no	none	none
Level & Galle	no	none	none
Patton & Griffin	no	none	none
Quible, Johnson & Mott	no	8	3, 18
Sigband & Bateman	no	none	none
1984-1987			
Bovee & Thill	1	12	3, 4, 5, 9, 10, 11, 13, 16, 19
Himstreet & Baty	1	7	2, 4, 7, 12, 18, 19
Huseman, Lahiff, Penrose & Hatfield	1	21	3, 4, 8, 9, 11, 12, 18, 19
Munter	no	6	3, 4, 7, 12, 19
Murphy & Hildebrandt	1/2	10	4, 10, 12
Nixon	no	7	3, 7, 19
Pearce, Figgins & Golen	1	21	3, 4, 12, 19
Poe & Fruehling	1/2	9	4, 5, 12, 17, 18, 19
Seigle	1/2	17	14
Sigband & Bell	1	21	2, 4, 7, 12, 14
Smeltzer & Waltman	1 1/2	32	3, 4, 12, 19
Wolf & Kuiper	no	4	1, 6, 12, 13, 15

Legend

1. computerized information services
2. integrated office systems
3. dictating equipment
4. electronic distribution systems
5. facsimile transmission
6. mailgram
7. microcomputers
8. optical character recognition
9. printers
10. reproduction equipment
11. storage
12. telecommunications
13. telegrams
14. telephone
15. typewriters
16. telex
17. voice recognition
18. work stations
19. word processing

FUTURE RECOMMENDATIONS

The current trend is a welcome development. Students of business communication need to know about the electronic office and the specific types of equipment that are used in conveying and storing information. However, this current trend can be summed up in one word: hardware. Most business communications texts are merely describing office equipment. There are two additional topics that we believe are critical to the area of office technology: networking and the people factor.

Networking

Only two of the texts reviewed in Table 1 addressed the area of networking, the way in which the various parts of the electronic office are linked. In order for the student to gain a fundamental understanding of the scope and importance of business communcations technology, a macro orientation is necessary. Networking provides a basis for the introduction of new equipment. For example, if an organization provides its people with laptop computers, the linkage between the laptop and the main computer, the printer, the modem, etc. are easy to understand because the study already knows how the current equipment is tied together. A macro orientation also helps the individual realize that the whole is qreater than the sum of the parts. Modern office technology is not just micros and modems and dictating equipment. It is an integrated system for processing and disseminating information. This conceptual idea must be developed in the business communication course.

People

While the electronic office promises to place modern technology at the finger tips of organizational personnel, there is a cost involved. Some people are frightened by this progress. These individuals are called "cyberphobes." The word is a combination of cybernetics (the process of automation and computer control) and phobia (fear of). There are a number of reasons that people fear office technology. One is that they do not know how to use the equipment and are reluctant to learn. This particularly is true among older people who have spent most of their lives using low-tech equipment and are now being asked to change their work habits. A second is the belief that technology will result in their having to do more work than before. A third is the fear that technology will result in their being proven incompetent and thus fired. A good example is provided by managers who are concerned that with electronically-communicated information, they will be required to make more rapid decisions and if they cannot they will be dismissed. A fourth fear is that they will be replaced by the computer. In dealing with these fears, organizations must realize that technological change has to be introduced systematically. The personnel must be informed about the decision, taught how to use the equipment, and given time to learn the benefits that the new technology offers. In this process, hands-on training is very important. Research shows that people are more likely to accept new technology if they have the opportunity to use it and become familiar with how it works. It is also important to point out to the personnel that the role of office technology is to make the work easier to perform so that people can

focus on "thinking" tasks and other jobs that require analysis and evaluation. The objective of technology is not to reduce the work force by replacing people with machines.

It is equally important that the personnel realize the shortcomings of office technology especially computers. For example, while computers can generate a great deal of information there is always the problem of information overload. Too great a reliance on computers can result in massive amounts of paper work being generated thus swamping managers with statistics and other data that they cannot possibly read. A complementary problem is that most managers tend to place too heavy a reliance on computer-generated data vis a vis noncomputer-generated. The result is that anything that is provided by the computer is regarded as accurate. This is not always true. Information from the computer is only as accurate as the data that was inputed. Managers are wise to remember that office technology is designed to increase efficiency; it is not designed to replace human thinking and action. Technology is a tool; it is not a substitute for personnel interaction, group meetings, and human evaluation of information.

The office of the future will allow the people to work faster and more accurately than ever before. At the same time, there are bound to be conflicts brought about by the introduction of technology. These must be dealt with openly and honestly. If the organization is determined to use state-of-the-art technology, it must be prepared to deal with the problems that accompany this decision.

CONCLUSION

Office technology in the 1980s has revolutionized the ways in which information is inputed, processed, stored, saved, and disseminated. This development has two primary dimensions: technical and human. Business communications texts must address both of these. On the technical side, new developments must be discussed from a micro and macro viewpoint. On the micro side are the new types of equipment that are coming onto the scene from small and more powerful micros to facsimile equipment that can transfer information into computer memory. On the macro side is the need for understanding how all of the pieces of office equipment can be linked together into a network system.

On the human side, there must be consideration of the challenges and problems that accompany the introduction of technology. Although the primary objective of business communications texts should not that of teaching organizational conflict resolution or similar behavioral concepts, the fact that hostility, withdrawal, avoidance, and other frustration-related effects are often the result of technology is more than enough reason to make people considerations a subsection of the chapter on the electronic office. No business communications text of the 1990s should be without it.

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NONVERBALLLY SPEAKING--YOU OUGHT TO BE IN PICTURES

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Collin Cherry (1, p. 305), in his classic work titled ON HUMAN COMMUNICATION: A REVIEW, A SURVEY, AND A CRITICISM, points out the difficulty in trying to identify communication as a specific discipline:

> It is my opinion that there is no coherent, unified, academic study to which the title "human communication" can yet be validly applied. It is more a coming-together of interests in many disciplines, with many different traditions of different aims. The boundaries of the field are not clear.

To have a clear understanding of the interrelation of communication is of prime importance in today's world. Among the reasons that it is important to have a clear understanding of nonverbal communication and its interrelation with verbal communication, according to Kohut and Baxter (3, p. 354) is that nonverbal communication (a) cannot be stopped, (b) has a tremendous influence on defining relationships, and (c) can be controlled.

According to Haggblade (2), articles indexed in the READER'S GUIDE TO PERIODICAL LITERATURE indicate that communication and nonverbal communication are relatively newcomers as separate topics of interest. Articles on communication did not appear with any frequency until the 1930's, and nonverbal communication did not appear until the mid 1950's. The early interest in both communication and nonverbal communication was largely the result of research and writing by psychologists and psychiatrists.

Although widespread interest in nonverbal communication has developed as a rather recent phenomenon, current research has now identified nonverbal communication as a major factor in the communication process. According to several well-known research studies, the words spoken in face-to-face interactions account for 35 percent or less of the total meaning produced during the communication process.

Because there is little question about the fact that people exchange a great deal of meaning nonverbally, understanding and

correctly interpreting the nonverbal signals conveyed during the communication process becomes a factor of primary importance in the communication process. Just as some people listen and read better than others, some people are better at decoding nonverbal messages than are others. However, according to Sussman and Deep (4, p. 25), anyone can improve their nonverbal abilities by seeking to do the following:

1. Look at the totality of cues rather than isolated cues.

2. Take the total context into account (time and place).

3. Attempt to compensate for their own biases/prejudices.

Nonverbal communication--herein defined as exchanging meaning without or in addition to the use of words--encompasses a broad field of study and the understandings are diverse. Many elements that affect nonverbal communication are culturally and/or situationally bound. In other words, the message is determined by the culture (in this discussion, the U. S. culture is reflected) and interpreted in the context of subtle situational cues.

Even within the same culture, using words to define other words can be a frustrating experience because words are simply symbols that stand for things; words in themselves have no meaning. Also, quite often these words (symbols) carry more than one meaning. Attempting to define an interrelated process such as nonverbal communication with words can be an even more frustrating experience because nonverbal elements shade or underscore the words, and there are literally thousands of different facial and body expressions that humans are capable of exhibiting.

Identifying and classifying nonverbal communication by the functions it serves helps in interpreting the message conveyed and received. Generally, these functions are to emphasize, to regulate and control, to display effect or emotion, and to substitute for verbal messages.

Although general functions of nonverbal communication have been identified, no one has been successful in identifying all the elements that affect human nonverbal communication. A review of current literature, however, indicates that the elements affecting nonverbal communication can be divided into at least two broad categories: the body and the environment. These two categories can be further subdivided into more specific areas including the following: posture and movements, actions and appearance, gestures and facial expressions, and timings and distances. Examples of these categories and subcategories will be presented and discussed through the use of visual media--slides and transparencies--for emphasis.

Using visual media increases the effectiveness of both the verbal and nonverbal message. Effective visual aids increases understanding and retention of nonverbal factors as well as clarifying and condensing complex data, emphasizing important points, and providing a contrast to the use of words only.

THE BODY

The body is a source of nonverbal confirmation or denial of our verbal message. We draw conclusions about people before we ever exchange words based on their posture, height, and weight. For example, we often assume that tall people make good leaders and fat people are sloppy but friendly.

Posture. Consider the various ways in which we hold our body and how it can be interpreted. Crossed arms can be read as defensiveness, defiance, or withdrawal. A slouched posture can be read to mean humiliation, defeat, or submissiveness. Leaning forward in a chair with hands clasped on a table can be interpreted as a sign of superiority, smugness, and authority.

Height and weight. We also draw conclusions about people based on their height and weight. Today, whole industries, such as cosmetic and clothing consultants and body building, exist because of the significance attached to appearance. According to studies quoted by Haggblade (2, p. 24), what people notice first in other people can be ranked in the following order of importance: (1) physique, (2) clothes, (3) face, (4) hair, and (5) hands.

Clothing. Our clothing can disclose three things about us. It gives us information about our behavior, values and attitudes, and what we do for a living.

Face. Many of us depend on reading facial expressions to judge how someone feels about a particular matter--including their own physical condition or their being with us. We have come to depend on the face as the most trustworthy indicator of emotions such as happiness, surprise, fear, disgust, contempt, anger, sadness, joy, interest, and embarrassment. But even the nonverbal facial cues should be "read" along with other cues in the total context.

We also rely on the face for insight in to a person's character. How many times have you heard someone identified as having an honest face or a strong chin? And, of course, we all know to steer clear of those nasty types with close, beady eyes! A scar or tatoo might presume to tell us something about the life someone has lead. Even occupations can be inferred from features such as a broken nose or cauliflower ear.

Eyes. As one specific part of the face, the eyes are an especially rich source of nonverbal cues. Eye contact or the

lack of it can tell us much about a person's feelings and disposition. Looking a person straight in the eyes is one way to get attention. We might also be led to believe that a direct glance means interest, honesty, extroversion, friendliness, a desire for feedback, or even an attempt to dominate. Conversely, a person who avoids eye contact might be perceived as confused, uninterested, introverted, embarrassed, ashamed, sorrowful, sad, submissive, or evasive--again, depending upon the totality of the cues taken in context.

Movement. The study of bodily movements (or kinesics) generally includes any type of physical actions such as gestures or facial expressions. Deciphering physical actions is difficult because of the diversity of gestures (As mentioned earlier, there are thousands of facial expressions alone.) and because meanings of movement vary according to the culture.

Gestures. Gestures are those movements we make with hands, fingers, arms, head--indeed every part of the body. They usually serve one of four purposes. Gestures, according to Sussman and Deep (4, p. 24), can be used to do the following:

(a) emphasize, clarify, or amplify a verbal message--such as pointing to a chair when offering someone a seat;

(b) regulate and control human interaction--such as a nod of agreement while someone else is speaking;

(c) display effect or emotion--such as pounding a desk to display anger; and

(d) act as an emblem (substitute) for a verbal equivalent--such as thumbs up/down or extending fingers in a "V" for victory.

Touch. Physical contact between people, apart from the expression of familial or romantic love, is not as common in our culture as in many others. However, our most common form of social physical contact is the handshake, and it is often relied upon as a source of data about another person. The handshake is usually interpreted as an indication of welcome, acceptance, liking, and greeting. Therefore, failure to offer your hand to someone who is expecting it may be attributed to rudeness or unfriendliness. The way you shake hands is often seen as another source of data. A vise grip may indicate a zest for life or a desire to dominate; a limp or tentative grasp is often linked with insecurity or a negative outlook on life.

Another example of touch behavior occurs when one person puts an arm around another's shoulder as an expression of encouragement, comfort, acceptance, support, or liking. This mode of nonverbal communication is usually initiated by a person of higher status toward a person of lower status.

THE ENVIRONMENT

Just as the body is a source of nonverbal confirmation or denial of our verbal message, material objects (physical settings) and our use of time and space also make statements about us and for us.

Material objects. Objects communicate messages about those who have them in their possession. The presence or lack of certain items and furnishings can convey messages about a person's status as well as interests and priorities. These messages should not be interpreted in isolation but should be interpreted in light of the totality of cues available.

Time. Our use of it (or lack of use) conveys messages to others. For instance, we as teachers know that strategically placed pauses in talking to a class can cause students to pay close(r) attention to us, as well as our use of physical closeness to the students.

Another example of time is how much emphasis our culture places on punctuality; whereas, in other cultures, it is expected that one should be properly late. Also, how long you have to wait to see someone and/or how much time you are allotted for your appointment carries quite a nonverbal message.

Space. Here we mean "personal space" (or proxemics). Depending again on the culture and the total context of the cues, how close we can get to each other sends an emphatic nonverbal message. Most Americans restrict their territory to a few feet of their body (18 inches to 4 feet for informal conversation and 4-12 feet for work relationships); whereas, in other cultures this would be considered too far apart and standing almost nose to nose is expected. Here, too, space and the amount you are allotted in the working environment makes a strong nonverbal statement of status.

SUMMARY

To have a clear understanding of the interrelation of communication is of prime importance in today's world because people exchange a great deal of meaning nonverbally. Current research has identified nonverbal communication as a major factor in defining relationships in the communication process. Although nonverbal communication cannot be stopped, the message(s) conveyed can be controlled somewhat during the process of communicating nonverbally.

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TEACHING COMMUNICATION TECHNIQUES THROUGH VIDEO

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Introduction

In the Business Communication class, videos can be used as powerful tools around which to emphasize techniques in interviewing, speaking, presenting, managing, listening, leading, and other skills provided the video is used imaginatively and is of high quality and up to date. Teachers need to be aware of what is available in the video area.

Classroom use of films started in the 1920s and 1930s. The films were a symbol of a progressive teaching approach. In 1910 George Kleine published a 336-page catalog listing over 1,000 films available to teachers on a rental basis [2]. In 1922 Thomas Edison said the following about the use of films in the classroom:

> I believe that the motion picture is destined to revolutionize our education system and that in a few years it will supplant largely, if not entirely, the use of textbooks.
>
> I should say that on the average we get about two percent efficiency out of schoolbooks as they are written today. The education of the future, as I see it, will be conducted through the medium of the motion picture...where it should be possible to obtain one hundred percent efficiency [2].

Thomas Edison's prediction has not come about for most of the traditional classes, but our textbooks most certainly can use supplementary material such as a video.

Function of the Teacher

Davies and Hartley in Contributions to an Educational Technology indicate that the function of the human teacher is to create a set of simplified and dynamic environments, models, situations through which a learner is guided to explore a social process. Three phases are involved: (1) the acquisition of background knowledge and perspectives, (2) develop a relevance to the real world, and (3) build up of contextual literacy [3].

Anthony Hodgson is concerned about the organic character of effective education as it relates to communication as shown in Figure 1.

FIGURE 1

URGE TO EXPLORE

Need to	Communication
Conserve	Through
Knowledge	Understanding

Education today is dominated by education through knowledge transmitted by the teacher to the student, but communication through understanding involves an encounter between minds. This requires a two-way interchange, active participation and should lead to progressive growth on the part of the teacher and learner [3].

In teaching these phases, videos and films along with books and lectures are specially suited. The knowledge and perspectives are sated in many of the videos, and students are able to see the relevance to the real world.

How to Use Videos

One of the factors which must be given serious consideration is the sequence of the instructional content when using videos. Where do they fit? Effective sequence is one which is meaningful to the learner. Carrying the learner from the general to specific or from the specific to the general is important. Videos are not "fillers" for the teacher. They may be used to introduce or summarize a topic. The video must be an integral part of the total instructional development process.

Another factor is to classify and interpret videos to find what useful material can be obtained from it. Always preview the video before using it. Give an overview of the video before showing it to the class or background information on the author when it is relevant. Time should be scheduled for a discussion of the video after viewing. Balance lesson content and purposes with the objectives of the video.

Make the students aware that the video is as important as a lecture might be. Ask questions on the next examination about points in the video; give a checklist as shown in Figure 2 for each student to find specific points while viewing the video.

Videos may be viewed by students individually, in groups of four or five or by the class as a whole. Audio-visual centers are available on most campuses for individual and group viewing any time during the day or evening

if you would like to require a certain video be viewed outside of class to be discussed later in class.

FIGURE 2

For each of the innovative companies studied in the In Search of Excellence video, identify at least one place where a communication concept was used correctly of effectively.

Disney World

Stew Leonard

3M

Apple Computer

Dana Corporation

North American Tool & Dye

IBM

McDonalds

Proper use of videos in the classroom requires a receptive teacher, a video which addresses itself to real needs and easy accessibility.

Available Videos

Large libraries of tapes are held by universities and colleges for use in the classroom. The following tapes have been published since 1985 and are available free through the North Carolina Division of the State Library. After previewing most of these tapes, I recommend them for use in the Business Communication class.

Job Preparation and Interviewing

More Than a Gut Feeling
1985 28 min.

Based on Paul Green's theory of "behavioral interviewing," this film shows executives, managers and supervisors how to interview and select the best candidate for the position. Through a series of factual vignettes, specific elements of an effective interview are shown.

Interviewing Techniques and Resume Tips for the Job Applicant
1985 55 min.

Itemizes and demonstrates very specific advice on a successful job interview for a white-collar business position. Describes the basic elements of the interview procedure, details the components and appearance of an effective resume and cover letter, and stresses the necessity of researching prospective employers prior to an interview. Suggestions for appropriate clothing and for handling typical questions are also covered. A simulated interview invites viewers to interact with he tape and practice interviewing for a job.

Professional Style
1985 60 min.

Shows how to create effective business wardrobe for men. Clothing designer Alexander Julian is featured, along with Sassoon salon grooming specialists and executives who discuss how their appearance has helped them rise to the top.

Preparing for the Jobs of the 1990s: What You Should Know
1986(?) 30 min.

Designed to help students make informed career choices; this program covers factors involved in career decision making, high lighting technological developments affecting the work place.

Career Strategies I
1985 60 min.

Succeeding with your company and industry is the theme of this program by Jeff Campbell, CED of Burger King and Robert Walterman, co-author of In Search of excellence, show you how to enhance your strengths and weaknesses. topics include promoting yourself effectively, breaking rules when and how, developing managerial skills, and mental exercises to help you gear up for success each day.

Career Strategies II
1985 60 min.

Headhunters, successful experts help you to understand what it takes to change jobs successfully, when to move, how to get the most out of a new position. Segments include: the CED's view of an excellent job applicant;

essential interview skills; writing the perfect resume; and secrets of negotiating pay and perks.

Meetings and Groups

The Abilene Paradox
1985 27 min.

Members of the group fail to communicate truthfully and false group consensus happens when members simply agree with others and hide their objectives.

Making Meetings Work: A Five-Step Plan
???

Management consultant Larry Hall introduces five basic steps that will lead to meetings that produce results, build team trust, increase creative thinking and encourage commitment to team decisions.

Leadership

Put More Leadership Into Your Style
1985 25 min.

Outlines the five fundamental principles of leadership: communication, mutual reward, power, decision making, and positive force. A series of vignettes illustrates the principles as george Franklin counsels four people of varying occupations who are having leadership problems. Based on the book by Elwood N. Chapman.

Speaking

Persuasive Speaking
1985 60 min.

A complete guide to effective speaking shows how to access an audience, eliminate nervous speech habits, use eye contact and body language, and come across effectively on camera.

When Women Talk Business: Finding Your Voice
1985 30 min.

Sharol Parish explores issues of confidence and power in communication and shows you the successful attitudes and speaking behaviors that will help you shape your public voice.

When Women Talk Business: Interactions That Count
1985 30 min.

Sharol Parish shows how self-defeating communication habits, such as apologizing, making excuses, over-explaining and putting yourself down, detract from ones credibility. This program teaches you how to make communication choices that will improve your interactions with others.

When Women Talk Business: Sounds of Success
1985 30 min.

Sharol Parish shows how to use your voice to enhance your personal power and professional impact by controlling pitch and intonation.

When Women Talk Business: Vocal Quality Counts
1985 30 min.

Sharol Parish shows the techniques for building strong, confident voices using oral resonation.

When Women Talk Business: Words That Work
1985 30 min.

Sharol Parish shows how to choose language that can serve your professional needs and eliminate hesitation, hedging, "rave" adjectives and other undesirable language habits from your speech.

When Women Talk Business: Your Vocal Assets
1985 30 min.

Sharol Parish discusses the importance of the rate and volume of speech, and the precision of articulation when communicating ideas, answering the telephone or selling a product, and shows how to use them successfully.

Negotiating

You Can win! Negotiating for Power, Love and Money
1985 55 min.

Tessa A. Warchaw, author of the best-seller Winning by Negotiation, shows you how to negotiate with people in every day life and win. Instead of relying on traditional teaching techniques, Dr. Warchaw uses entertaining scenarios to reveal the secret behind getting what you want from your boss, your kids and your spouse.

Concentration

The Juggler
1985 30 min.

Shows how to develop the power of concentration and demonstrates ways it can be put to use. Offers numerous tips and suggestions that can be used right away to help you concentrate on different demands and priorities you face.

Management

The Quality Man
1985 30 min.

Philip Crosby has been associated with quality in business and industry as a working professional for more than 30 years. He heads his own consulting company counseling companies like IBM, General MOtors and others. He is the

author of best-selling books on quality. This film presents his views on the need for effective quality management, and lays out the philosophy a management team needs to understand in order to cause improvement.

The New Supervisor: Making the Transition
1985 24 min.

Three experienced supervisors explore the differences between being an individual worker and a supervisor. In a series of on-the-job vignettes they discuss: the importance of thinking like a manager; delegating responsibilities; employee training and development; communicating your expectations; using feedback and development; communicating your expectations; using feedback and employee ideas; handling behavior problems; and the need to admit and learn from your mistakes.

In Search of Excellence
1985 90 min.

This documentary examines examples of successful management in large and small companies in America. Takes views behind the scenes of Walt Disney, 3M, IBM, Dana, etc. focuses on the three major themes of innovation, productivity through people, shared values and shows how the companies have benefited from their use.

I Can Do It! Stew Leonard
1985 24 min.

Documents the marketing tips of Stew Leonard whose dairy store in Norwalk, Conn. is the world's largest and grosses over $80 million in a year.

Famous Amos: The business Behind the Cookie
1985 30 min.

With little education and no business knowledge, Wally "Famous" Amos build a multi-million dollar chocolate chip empire. This film profiles the man behind the business, from the first store in Los Angeles to Amos cookie-mania in stores across the country.

Goal Setting

Stop Procrastinating...Act Now
1985 23 min.

Through a series of humorous vignettes, the film shows some of the reasons for procrastination: lacking a clear goal, the ability to set priorities, or sufficient self confidence; expecting perfection and failing to complete a task; thinking the task is insignificant, boring or overwhelming; fearing the imagined consequences. Solutions offered are: develop a more positive self-image; set goals and establish priorities; subdivide and delegate; confront your fears; set time limits; don't let obstacles immobilize you; reward yourself.

The last two semesters, I have used parts of In Search of Excellence in my classes. Listening and group techniques are emphasized in the Stew

Leonard segment; a formal presentation is made at 3M; Walt Disney wants everyone to have a vision; and Dana Corporation levels with employees by communicating in group meetings about financial difficulties.

As you search for improving classroom productivity through technological innovations, try a video. You will find they enhance textbook reading because they appeal to emotion, to humor, and to a sense of adventure. This simply cannot be done using just the lecture method. Teachers have felt for many years that films and videos are somewhat entertaining and, therefore, are somewhat tainted as teaching tools. Little information exists on the extent that videos should be sued by teachers on a weekly or monthly basis. Frequency, of course, avoids the issue of importance; that is, technology may be used infrequently yet have an acute influence on the learning experience.

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TEACHING BUSINESS REPORT WRITING DEDUCTIVELY

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ABSTRACT

The deductive method of teaching formal report writing is explained and distinguished from the inductive method. The inductive method, following the organization of many business comunication texts, presents introductory, bacic, preliminary material covering words and sentences and audience analysis and "everything" before developing actual report writing.

The deductive approach presents the course "conclusion" first – models of finished reports which provide frameworks in which principles about writing and organization and audience analysis provide the solutions to actual composition problems.

Inductive Method

Many business communication texts treat formal research reports inductively. First come preliminary chapters covering principles of writing, then discussions of words, then sentences, then paragraphs, then audience analysis and letters and short reports. Finally, the formal report is presented. This gradual, developmental approach has great appeal for students and textbook makers alike since it follows a long tradition and its supporting theory seems "natural." Humans learn, the theory goes, by little bits, and these bits cohere with other bits to sustain larger, more complex learning activities. Words must naturally be learned before sentences because words are the little bits which form sentences. Sentences are the bits forming paragraphs, and so on.

Gradually growing through the entire series of learning steps, one is expected to arrive confidently, with all the little bits cohering nicely, at the formal report stage. One simply puts all the little bits in motion and the report gets done. Texbooks arranged in this fashion thus display a maturation process within themselves and, in microcosm, symbolize the growth to maturity of biological organisms. A few examples of current textbooks will illustrate:

Business Communications by Himstreet and Baty begins with a discussion of communications foundations in part I, presents chapters on using words and the techniques of style in part II, and continues through to part IV where the report process is described. Chapter 19 is entitled "Preparing Formal Reports." (1)

Business Communication: Strategies and Skills by Huseman, Lahiff, and Penrose starts with an overview of business communication in part I. Part II presents strategies for writing, characteristics of effective writing, qualities of several letter types, memoranda, and short reports. Chapter 9 introduces the long report, and Chapter 10 deals with writing the long report. (2)

Practical Management Communications by Stout and Perkins begins with the theoretical base for communication, proceeds through listening, speaking, and reading skills, and arrives at writing skill development in Chapter 11. The next to last chapter in the book, Chapter 16, presents reports. (3)

The list could become very lengthy, but the point should be clear that makers of business communications texts are fond of presenting principles first, then practice, and that the formal report usually comes near the end of the writing section, which is often toward the end of the book.

From discussions with colleagues over the years and from my own experience, I suspect that instructors of business communications generally follow a similar inductive, "natural" approach in their classes. Smaller, less complicated exercises or steps need to be learned, it is supposed, before more difficult ones are attempted. We review words and sentences and what communication is before graduating to letter writing, report writing, and finally writing the formal report. Analogically, one might consider each step in the learning process a layer on an onion or an accretion on a pearl. Slowly the layers build until the maturation process is complete.

Disadvantages of the Inductive Method

One problem with this method in upper-level business communication courses is that the initial steps have been taken before, perhaps many times. Business majors at Columbus College, for example, are required to take the English 101-102 sequence and a sophomore level business communication class before enrolling in the Management 411 course – Effective Communication Skills for Managers. Based upon some of the texts widely used in lower division English and business communications courses, students already receive an ample review of parts of speech, sentence types, paragraph construction, and a host of other preliminaries. Asking juniors and seniors to review these preliminaries again is perhaps tantamount to requiring calculus students to review addition and subtraction principles.

Another problem in upper division communication courses is the serious lack of time. The courses are bursting already with writing, speaking, listening, and inter-personal activities. We simply do not have the luxury to say, "Okay people, back to square one to unlearn everything you thought you knew about words and sentences and writing coherent paragraphs."

Perhaps the major drawback in the inductive method resides in its pedagogical ramifications. Since in the inductive approach we are tempted to go back to square one and explain words and sentences and organization and everything, we obviously won't have enough time even to get to the report unless we lecture, pouring the material into our

students' brains. Questions, because they take up time, are barely tolerated. Discussion also cuts seriously into class time, so student heads are bowed, pens filling up page after page. The assumption here is that students can be talked into becoming skillful writers, which is just as true as saying people can be talked into becoming good tennis players, singers, or architects.

Deductive Method

One alternative is to assign the formal report first, before going over any preliminaries, and require the rough draft relatively soon in the quarter, say in two and one-half weeks to three weeks. When using this approach, I divide the class into working groups of three or four students, make the assignment, and show the students a list of various report criteria and representative model reports. The students analyze and discuss the reports in their groups, and then as a class we peel the report layers, commenting as we go about format, audience, tone and other pertinent issues. Beginning with the title page and working through the report section by section, we thus get directly into material which some classes might lead up to for an entire quarter.

Having analyzed several completed reports on a variety of topics, students are asked to prepare a project proposal, the results of which will form the basis of their own research. Here the deductive approach works also, with several proposal models reviewed and discussed. The progress report, their next assignment, also follows the deductive approach, as do the components of the report proper – the abstract, letter of transmittal, bibiliography, and so on.

Advantage of Deductive Method

The deductive approach to formal report writing has several advantages over the indirect method:

(1) Students working from finished models have a continuous context in which to develop their own writing strategies.

(2) Models provide a framework which focuses attention upon specific problems with specific solutions. Principles, in this context, provide keys to solving problems.

(3) In focusing upon specifics, instructors are freed from spending time trying to anticipate all the problems – the "everything" – students might encounter.

(4) Shown a variety of models at the beginning, students become aware of the diversity of report types and circumstances requiring reports. Students are also encouraged to be less dependent upon one model to fit all situations.

Disadvantages of Deductive Method

While the deductive approach has its advantages, there are some problems as well:

(1) The deductive method assumes knowledge or understanding which some students might not have.

(2) Some students have trouble relying upon their own initiative. Since not "everything" is explained beforehand, some students become anxious. They have forgotten what they learned about words and sentences and paragraphing and are afraid to ask or are unclear about what to ask.

(3) In a way similar to reports arranged deductively, when students finish their formal reports the remainder of the class seems anticlimactic. The introduction, preliminaries and incremental build up are gone.

(4) Since much of the preliminary lecture material has disappeared (or has been transferred to the lab), some instructors may themselves become disoriented by the different scheduling and timetables.

CONCLUSION

In summary, the deductive method for teaching formal business reports represents an alternative to the developmental, incremental approach characteristic of the makers of business communication texts. The strategy is deductive because it foregoes the background preliminaries which usually precede, often in lecture format, the report itself and instead presents first the "conclusion," the finished report model to the students. Through analysis of model reports and of the components of these reports, students develop an adaptive understanding of how to create reports of their own.

While some problems of the deductive method still need to be resolved it offers several advantages over the inductive method to upper division business communication classes requiring formal report writing.

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BIASED LANGUAGE IN THE WORKPLACE: ARE MANAGERS MEETING THE CHALLENGE?

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Today, managers are faced with the dilemma that the use of profanity and biased language in the workplace may lead to legal problems for the organization. This seems paradoxical in light of the fact that in today's society there appears to be a greater tolerance of the use of profanity and other inappropriate language in "mixed company." Verbiage that was once labeled "ghetto language" is now commonplace in small-town America [2], and some examples even appear in the new Random House Dictionary of the English Language [4]. It may present problems for organizations, however, when the presence of this inappropriate verbiage is biased and affects protected classes of workers (race, color, religion, sex and national origin).

The Changing Legal Climate

Historically, managers have always had, with some limitations, the authority to discipline members of their organizations for any actions that were deemed inappropriate, including the use of profane and biased language. The Wagner Act of 1935 clarified the rights of workers when dealing with organizations, including verbal exchanges; however, the Act did not dispute the authority of organizations to take punitive action against the use of biased verbiage if proper circumstances prevailed. Business organizations, however, have not always elected to take such punitive action. Culturally, the job environment was often a "man's world," dominated by the white male, and the inhabitants of this environment either were not sensitive to the presence of profanity or other inappropriate language or, in order to protect their macho image, did not choose to protest its presence. Today, however, the workplace is no longer an exclusive sanctum for the white male. Women and other minorities now comprise a sizeable percentage of the work force, and the legal climate has changed dramatically to accommodate their needs. Consequently, business organizations are having to become more sensitive to these changes.

Yet, with all the indicators pointing to this increasing need for sensitivity, there is a plethora of evidence that these inappropriate exchanges still exist in many organizations. This evidence can be documented with several examples from the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission's Compliance Manual [3], and from other literature:

> An employer's practice of referring to male employees as "men" and female employees as "girls" discriminates against the women on the basis of their sex [3, Sec. 615.6].

White employee was "aggrieved" in fact and as a matter of law by supervisor's attitude toward and use of racial epithets in referring to Blacks; employer is responsible for behavior of its agents and failure to take reasonable steps calculated to maintain working environment free from racial intimidation or insult [3, Sec. 615.8].

Employer failed to provide working environment free of religious intimidation where supervisor harassed employees by preaching religion on the job; an employer is responsible for the actions of its supervisors, and charging parties had no obligation to inform higher level managerial personnel of their supervisor's conduct in order for the employer to be bound by the requirements of Title VII [3, Sec. 615.9].

An electronic bulletin board at the University of Michigan was used for jokes that were obscene and, as a student-government official said, "perpetuated outbreaks of racism and attacks against students because of their sexual preference" [1, p. 27].

To what extent, therefore, are managers and future managers of business organizations aware of the need to monitor the content of inappropriate verbiage through educational programs and corrective policies? In a recent study, personnel managers (members of the American Society for Personnel Administration) and prospective managers (undergraduate college seniors who are members of a student chapter of the American Society for Personnel Administration) were asked these questions.

Results of the Survey

The current managers represented organizations with 100 or more employees in manufacturing, healthcare, finance, retailing, government, and public utilities. A majority of these organizations did in fact acknowledge their awareness of the risks of inappropriate language use and had issued policy statements prohibiting the use of such language. Fifty percent of all organizations further acknowledged these concerns with the introduction of formal education programs for both managers and other employees. The format of these educational programs varied from seminars and training workshops to orientation sessions and reviews of company manuals, a substantial percentage of which were administered internally.

Similar results were evident from the survey of prospective managers. The students, in fact, were even more aware of the risks of inappropriate language and the need to educate managers and other employees against these risks. Evidently the classroom experience exerted a strong influence on the awareness level of the prospective managers.

In both cases, what the results seem to indicate is that there is a general understanding by the current managers and students surveyed that the use of inappropriate language on the job is risky. Whether these responses are representative of the business environment in general is unknown, but the results are nevertheless encouraging.

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BRINGING THE TECHNOLOGY OF TELECOMMUNICATIONS INTO BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

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ABSTRACT

Because of rapid technology changes, studies of companies should be undertaken periodically to learn types of decisions being made about equipment used in the telecommunication area. Data presented in this study is based on research of current literature and questionnaire and interview responses of 50 companies.

INTRODUCTION

The rising costs of communication and office operations and the need for increased communication justifies telecommunication system installation in an ever increasing number of businesses. Therefore, business communication instructors should incorporate up-to-date telecommunication materials in the curriculum.

"Telecommunication is the transmission of information between one information processing system and another." That information may include data, image, text, and voice. (5)

Our 1987 study reflects channels determined by a survey of local businesses. This paper will be organized in the following order: need for the study; communication personnel; channel selection; and summary of results.

NEED FOR THE STUDY

When one looks at any of the models of communication whether the Shannon-Weaver Model whose elements include source, message, channel, receiver, and destination; the Berlo Model whose elements include the source, message, channel, receiver; or the Laswell Model whose elements include Who Says What to Whom Through What Channel with What Effect, one integral part of each model is the channel selection.

The criteria the sender or source must consider when deciding upon the channel are (1) cost, (2) time, (3) message intensity or importance, (4) receiver such as who or the number, and (5) need for a written record. In recent years

the media from which to select was somewhat limited. When one needed to send an oral message, the choice was between face-to-face communication or telephone. When one needed to send a written message. the possible choice was among a letter, memo, facsimile, or in-house publications. Even though each of these channels is still available, many others are available such as the electronic telephone, video conferencing, mailgram, computer-to-computer, terminal-to-computer, terminal-to-terminal, satellite communications, and other local or global area network configurations. As channels have increased, costs have increased and communication decisions are becoming more complex.

Telecommunication can be a major factor in more economical, efficient communication processes. The telecommunication industry is changing constantly. With technological advances and deregulation and the divestiture of AT&T, companies are finding it difficult to keep up with technology. Choosing telecommunication components that best serve an organization's needs is very important and difficult as well. However, consultant groups can help an organization determine their telecommunication needs and assist in certain tasks. Also, the Telecommunication Association will provide guidance and education to managers assigned the task of company telecommunication. For more information about the support services, write TCA, 1515 West Cameron Avenue B 140, West Covina, CA 91790.

REASONS FOR ADOPTING TELECOMMUNICATION

Each company should look at telecommunication systems in the office because: (1) as much as 75 percent of document delivery time savings, (2) increased security and accuracy in transmission, (3) when comparing a multipage document, the cost of immediate delivery is much less than with other carriers. (1)

COMMUNICATION PERSONNEL

Organizations need someone to manage the telecommunication function. "Prior to the advent of competition, 'telecommunication management' meant simply checking the monthly phone bill, handling complaints about the phone system when it was not working properly, and ordering equipment and service changes." (2) When assistance was needed, organizations called the local telephone company. Now, because several factors have changed our environment over the past few years, telecommunication managers have found themselves responsible for the company telephone system and networks for the first time. Besides the industry changes, many corporations are awakening to the greater role of telecommunication in corporate strategy and in increasing worker productivity. As a result, they must balance technical and mangerial skills more effectively than before.

Managers responsible for their company's telecommunication system are now involved with functions essential to a manager's role, such as planning, designing, selecting, or upgrading systems under their charge. They must: learn new technologies, plan telecommunication services, and select new systems from a diversity of vendors. (3)

Telecommunications are regarded as company resources and, when managed effectively, can make an important contribution to the organization's profitability.

Because divestiture, deregulation, and multivendor environments are prevalent in today's telecommunication industry, the new telecom manager must:

* develop telecom staffs by hiring, training, motivating, and retaining talented people. The telecommunication industry is experiencing a severe shortage of skilled technicians to service telecommunication equipment.

* educate one's self. In the telecom environment, many opportunities are available to increase productivity and save money.

* get the most from vendor products and services.

* formalize strategic plans for five to ten years ahead.

CHANNEL SELECTION

Organizations that have acquired a phone system in the past should be aware of certain features. If a system is four to five years old, a company is not taking advantage of the productivity features found in today's business phones. Many phone systems have features that allow businesses to control and manage two very costly corporate expenses--long distance charges and personal phone calls. Other features such as on-hook dialing and speed dialing save time and allows workers to be more productive. (4)

Technological change has affected all facets of the telecommunication industry. After choosing a phone system, even a greater problem exists in choosing a long-distance carrier. Also, with increased competition among long-distance carriers, companies have found it difficult to distinguish between features that are best suited for their needs. The decision in choosing a telephone system is a major decision and must be approached with a clear understanding of one's telephone needs.

RESULTS OF THE SURVEY

As shown in Table 1, of the 12 types of systems, the following types of systems were used most frequently: data modems, 78 percent; key telephone systems, 65 percent; facsimile and computer-to-computer data transfer, both 61 percent; and private branch exchange, 49 percent.

TABLE 1
SYSTEMS USED IN THE BUSINESS

Type of System	Number	Percentage of Response
Key telephone systems	15	65
Private branch exchange	11	49
Large telephone switching	10	43
Teletype	6	26
Facsimile	14	61
Cellular telephone	9	39
Data modems	18	78
Video conferencing	4	17
Telex	10	43
Electronic telephone	8	35
Computer-to-computer data	14	61
E-com	4	17

NOTE: The possibility existed that each person could have responded affirmatively to each item; therefore, percentages could have been 100 percent for each item.

In summary, telecommunication components included telephone systems, teletype, facsimile, video teleconferencing, telex, and computer-to-computer data transfer.

Sixty-five percent of the firms used "dial-up" equipment. Information gained from the interviews indicated most of the telecommunication was "dial-up" equipment and approximately 20 percent was by "hard-wired" form of computer communication. Also video telecommunication was used by some firms for training purposes.

As shown in Table 2, Facsimile, Federal Express, and Telex were external mail distribution systems used most frequently.

TABLE 2
EXTERNAL MAIL DISTRIBUTION SYSTEMS

Type of System	Number	Percentage of Response
Facsimile	15	65
Federal Express	15	65
Intepost	0	0
E-com	3	13
TWX	4	17
Mailgrams	5	22
Telex	11	48

NOTE: The possibility existed that each person could have responded affirmatively to more than one item; therefore, percentages could have been 100 percent for each item.

In addition to the external mail distribution systems just given, nine percent of the firms used electronic internal mail distribution systems.

Seventy percent of the firms owned their telecommunication system while thirty percent leased their phone system. Seventy percent of the firms used AT&T for their long-distance carrier.

Growth and productivity in the firm was attributed to the telecommunication system by half of the firms surveyed.

For training purposes, seventy percent of the firms did have a telecommunication manual, while thirty percent did not.

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THE IMPACT OF DEREGULATION AND DIVESTITURE ON TELECOMMUNICATION SYSTEMS AND NETWORKS

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ABSTRACT

The hopes and fears associated with deregulation of the telecommunication industry are reviewed. The purpose of this paper is to explore some of the ramifications of deregulation as it affects the management of telecommunication systems and networks. A challenge of management includes selecting the best alternative from a wide array of organizational information systems. Effective management is regarded as reaching objectives efficiently.

BACKGROUND

Deregulation has stimulated competition and provided management with an array of telecommunication options never before possible. The settlement of the antitrust suit against American Telephone and Telegraph Company caused the restructuring of the Bell System and the split-up of the organization into seven regional operating companies. However, one of the most important features of deregulation concerns customer premise equipment. This part of deregulation has stimulated an explosion of innovative communication technology and equipment. Likewise, telecommunication service options have multiplied. As it now stands, the telecommunication industry is partly regulated, and only partly deregulated, and partly unregulated.

The regulated part of the industry is supervised by the Federal Communication Commission, but the unregulated segment (dealing with equipment choices and service options) gives management an entirely new set of opportunities and challenges. As a result of the "customer premise equipment option," the opportunities for competition have been mainly in service and equipment options. The wide choice of hardware vendors and service options makes selection of telecommunication options a major managerial problem. However, management may have little or no background for making important decisions related to this area of operations.

Regulated Portion

Because telecommunication services (both local and long-distance) are regarded as a vital public utility, that part of the industry is "regulated." The deregulated part of the industry (dealing with equipment and service) is

"deregulated" but still must meet certain engineering and service standards set by the Federal Communication Commission. This means that most of the equipment on the market can be expected to give the kind of service for which it is produced. It does not mean that everything on the market will do everything with the same degree of satisfaction. This is caveat emptor, "let the buyer beware."

Unregulated Portion

The unregulated part of the telecommunication industry is that segment which allows businesses and individuals to connect certain equipment to the "long lines" for certain kinds of transmission services. In reality, the Commission has segmented telecommunication operations into three areas: (1) service, (2) equipment, and (3) installation/maintenance. As a result, telecommunication services may depend on a special combination of vendors without overlapping responsibilities. This makes it extremely important for management to be aware of the implications of available alternatives.

While the telephone is perhaps one of the most common items in households and/or businesses, today's telephones have much less in common with each other than was true a decade ago. The consumer service options have changed as much or more than the equipment itself. Deregulation has stimulated competition, affected cost, and created new, far-reaching, managerial concerns. Changes in telecommunication have been so significant that many have referred to this as a new era, the "Information Age."

THE OUTCOMES OF DEREGULATION

The stated goal of deregulation was to serve the public interest by stimulating competition. The hope of competition was lower prices and better service, but the prospect of higher prices and poorer service stimulated anxiety and fear. Deregulation actually resulted in innovative equipment and specialized service options never before possible. However, the seven new regional telecommunication companies created by divestiture operate very much as regional monopolies. Of course, the regional companies offer a far greater variety of equipment and service options and may in the future be competitors. Numerous new telecommunication businesses have been established as a result of deregulation. However, both local and long-distance telecommunication service is still regarded as a public utility and as such is regulated by the Federal Communication Commission. The objective of regulation is dependable service and fair prices for an essential public utility: telecommunication.

Technological advances have made significant new services available and, in fact, created virtually a new service industry with unprecedented implications for consumers. Some entirely new companies (notable among them are Sprint and MCI) have emerged to provide competitively priced long-distance toll service in competition with AT&T. The new telemarketing industry offers voice, data, and image transmission capabilities—facsimile transmission as well as digitally stored data.

"AD" (AFTER DEREGULATION) TELECOMMUNICATION

Much has been added to the telecommunication alphabet soup of the previous decade. The FCC's (Federal Communication Commission) deregulation of customer premise equipment (CPE) radically changed distribution channels and transmission networks. New digital systems include local area networks (LAN), metropolitan area networks (MAN), and value-added networks (VAN). Management must evaluate needs, set policy, purchase equipment, recruit and train personnel to achieve specific, and well defined objectives based on an analysis of organizational needs.

WATS (wide area telecommunication service), or inward and/or outward leased lines are available to meet specific customer needs. Other services include: private branch exchange (PBX), electronic private automatic branch exchange (EPABX), computer-based private branch exchange (CPBX), and central exchange system (CENTREX). In selecting from the wide array of services and choices available, the challenge for management is deciding what needs to be done and using the most efficient and economical means.

Powers (6, p. 9) says some think deregulation of the telephone services will create a market climate similar to that of the airline industry in which power becomes concentrated in the hands of a few companies. This concentration of power may more likely cause service problems in the telephone industry because an advantageous market position in telecommunications appears to depend upon efficient operation. Although advocates of deregulation give competition as the main reason for regulation/policy changes, small companies cannot offer the range of services provided by larger companies due to the initial cost of entering the field. The solution, therefore, seems to be to allow new firms to enter the market because only economic regulation can contain the market power of the regional telephone companies.

"Cost allocation" is a special problem in the telecommunication industry, primarily because of the relationship between indirect and direct costs and also because of the price variations of new technological equipment. Indirect costs are defined as those which cannot be identified with specific services. Costs may be classified as either "non-traffic sensitive" or "traffic sensitive." "Non-traffic sensitive cost" involves a uniform loading rate based upon a direct cost. The Federal Communication Commission's established rate formula was designed to allocate a large share of the non-traffic cost to toll services. With deregulation, new companies entering the market are provided an opportunity to recover non-traffic sensitive cost through more direct cost-based pricing (1, p. 39).

Telecommunication manager must consider liability or litigation risks based on fraudulent and/or abusive telemarketing campaigns. Another concern is billing large volume toll users. Laws involving consumer protection and antitrust regulations are especially important in the area of installation, maintenance, and repair services. Daniels also points out that state laws vary in the areas of fraud, breach of contract, and deception (3, p. 51).

Some analysts are concerned that introduction of competition can threaten service to sparsely populated rural areas. The "bypass" issue concerns managers. Because large users of long-distance services also use local services, transferring costs to local service encourages these customers to find ways to bypass local service (2, p. 10).

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION SYSTEMS

Choosing the best organizational communication system from among the available alternatives is an important managerial responsibility Every possible option should be considered. Because potentially large long-term investments may be involved, in-house and outside expert assistance is often necessary. However, a thorough in-house analysis of organizational communication needs is the first requisite. Such an analysis must investigate service requirements, equipment choices, and personnel needs.

Communication services can affect an entire business more than any other facet of the operation. Choosing between alternative equipment and service possibilities may be one of management's most important functions. Managerial responsibility is what it always has been: defining and achieving worthy objectives by evaluating and utilizing available alternatives with maximum efficiency.

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THE EFFECT OF STYLE ON MEMORY AND COMPREHENSION: RESULTS OF AN EXPLORATORY RESEARCH PROJECT

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Introduction

The question is neither uncommon nor unfair: Why do so many professional writing textbooks and most articles on professional writing which appear in the professional journals take a prescriptive approach to writing style? The assumption which lies behind this approach is that there is an absolute, or something approaching an absolute, style which will be in all cases the most effective style a professional writer can employ. Yet, rarely does an article or textbook offer concrete proof for the validity of this assumption, and enough material has been published on the fact that style should follow from purpose and audience to question the extent to which one can prescribe uniform adherence to any principles of style. The failure to offer concrete evidence for the assumption is, of course, related to the difficulty in gathering data which validates a position about something as subjective as writing style.

Despite the difficulties in gathering such data, the student researchers involved in this study prepared, conducted, and analyzed the data from a research project, the purpose of which was to test the impact style has on a reader's ability to retain and understand the information in a written communication. The research was exploratory, but the results gave strong, and concrete, evidence to suggest that the principles of style generally prescribed by the professional writing texts and articles in the professional writing journals lead to a significant improvement in the capacity of a written communication to serve its purpose, i.e. to leave the reader with a retention and understanding of the information the discourse contains. The purpose of this presentation is to outline the research procedure used and to present the results of the project which served as an excellent classroom exercise, but which also, and more importantly, generated meaningful data which supported the tested hypothesis.

Review of Previous Research

The first step in designing the research scheme was to conduct a thorough review of literature, focusing first on articles dealing with effective style in professional writing and second on articles presenting the results of other studies

designed to gather concrete data on the correlation between style and retention. In 1958, Morris Friedman published what has become something of the definitive article on professional writing style, "The Seven Sins of Technical Writing" (College Composition and Communication, Vol. 34, No. 2: 87-95). Friedman's article discusses seven stylistic flaws which a professional writer must avoid. Friedman notes, for example, that professional communications must avoid passive voice, poorly placed modifiers, jargon, "pretentious" words, and confusing sentence structures. The majority of articles written on style in professional writing since 1958 have dealt with the importance of one or more of Friedman's points; few have added to the list of stylistic weaknesses; most have stressed the importance of active voice, clear sentence structure, and precise but simple wording.

Of the second type of article, those dealing with the results of studies similar to that we were pursuing, perhaps the most useful to us was that written in 1979 by Gordon Bower, John Black, and Terrence Turner entitled "Scripts in Memory for Text" (Cognitive Psychology, Vol. 11: 177-220). This article explores how text is stored in memory. Bower, Black, and Turner advance the idea that stories are stored in memory as scripts, or expected sequences of events. They left open, however, the question of how best to present information to aid the reader in later recall. The most important finding in their work is that which explains the extent to which a reader relies on expectation, or logical inference, when digesting written information.

In 1985, Keith Horton published "The Role of Semantic Information in Reading Spatially Transformed Text" (Cognitive Psychology, Vol. 17: 66-88). Horton studied the effect of inverted sentence order on reading time, but didn't fully explore or quantify the effect on recall.

Research Procedure

At this point, perhaps a bit of qualification is in order. Our study was interested in, and kept distinct, two particular forms of cognition. We looked at the impact of style on the reader's ability to remember distinct facts. We looked also at the impact style had on the reader's ability to comprehend the material in a written passage, i.e. to put facts together in a logical and correct pattern. Thus far, and throughout this article, we will refer to both forms of cognition in reference to the research procedure and data analysis.

The review of literature complete, and these few articles only illustrate the type of material the class investigated, the next step was to design a research scheme that would effectively test our hypothesis, specifically stated: Deviation from the principles of effective style in professional writing has a

negative impact on a reader's ability to remember and comprehend information in a written communication.

Our specific research procedure was designed to compare the effect of writing style on the comprehension and memory of two groups of subjects. The experimental conditions were that two randomly selected groups of people received material to read under identical circumstances, identical in terms of environment, reading and testing time, and so forth. The only difference allowed was the variable of style; the information was exactly the same for both groups. One group received material conforming to the recommended style and the other received material which violated the recommended style. The violations were primarily of four types--passive voice, sentence inversion, long sentences, and wordiness--these selected according to the findings in the majority of the articles studied in the previously discussed review of literature.

To develop test material, the members of the class wrote the log of a voyage up a previously unexplored river in a fictitious country. Each class member wrote a daily entry using the third person so that the log was in the words of a journalist. We purposely made the occurrences along the way rather unusual. Also the entries in the log by the expedition's journalist were of disconnected events. Each of these decisions about the preparation of the test material was made so that we could diminish the potential interference from previous learning or from association with previously read or viewed material. We first prepared the expedition's log according to the recommended style of writing and then rewrote the log purposely violating the principles of style (See Figure 1). Care was taken not to allow the violations of style to become exaggerated and thus produce writing unlike that which one might encounter and to keep the information in both versions the same despite varying the writing style. We also were careful that in an effort to include wordiness as a tested matter of style we did not let one passage end up significantly longer than the other. For the study, therefore, wordiness was determined by the number of words in a sentence, not by the overall length of the test passage. As a result, the material which violated the tested principles of style contained fewer, but longer sentences. Finally, each member of the class participated in the preparation of a test which would evaluate both the readers' retention of the information presented in the test material and their comprehension of the sum of that information (See Figure 2).

Class members recruited volunteers to participate in the experiment. We only told the volunteers they would be involved in an experiment dealing with methods of writing. A few of the class members where selected to administer the test in order that the testing procedure would be consistent as we had to conduct the process at two different time periods. We randomly selected the two groups of twenty-five participants during the distribution of the material. To do so, the class members selected to administer the test stacked the two types of

FIGURE 1: EXAMPLE PASSAGES

Group C

The Geologist and the Captain traveled down the tunnels of the volcano. They noticed that the rocks gave off a purple light and a peculiar smell. The Captain suspected that the rocks were actually a new element.

Group D

While the Geologist and the Captain were traveling down the tunnels of the volcano, they noticed that the rocks gave off a purple light and a peculiar smell. It was suspected by the Captain that the rocks were actually a new element.

FIGURE 2: EXAMPLE QUESTION

What was discovered in the volcano?

A. Lava

B. Unusual rocks

C. A gas

D. All of the above

E. None of the above

materials in alternating order. They distributed the materials as the participants were seated. This accomplished the desired effect of random selection between the two groups. In this article and its appendices, Group C refers to the people who read the material conforming to the tested principles of style and Group D to those who read the material violating these principles. The participants had 15 minutes to read the material before receiving the questions to answer and 30 minutes to answer the 36 questions.

The variable of primary interest was the difference in the mean score of the two groups when tested on the material. A statistical analysis program produced the final statistical data for the experiment. This program is commonly referred to as "SAS," which stands for Statistical Analysis System.

Findings

A brief inspection of the individual test scores points up a trend supporting the notion that the style of the passage the subjects read affected their ability to retain information (See

Figure 3). Tables A and B contain histograms representing the score distributions, Table A presenting the scores of the group which had the advantage of the material conforming to the principles of style and Table B the scores of those whose passage violated these principles of style. The scores represented in Table A are higher than those in Table B.

FIGURE 3: TEST SCORES

GROUP C	GROUP D
32	29
30	28
29	26
29	26
28	26
28	26
28	25
28	25
28	25
27	24
27	24
25	24
25	24
25	24
24	23
24	23
24	22
24	22
23	21
23	20
22	20
22	19
20	18
19	14
18	13

TABLE A

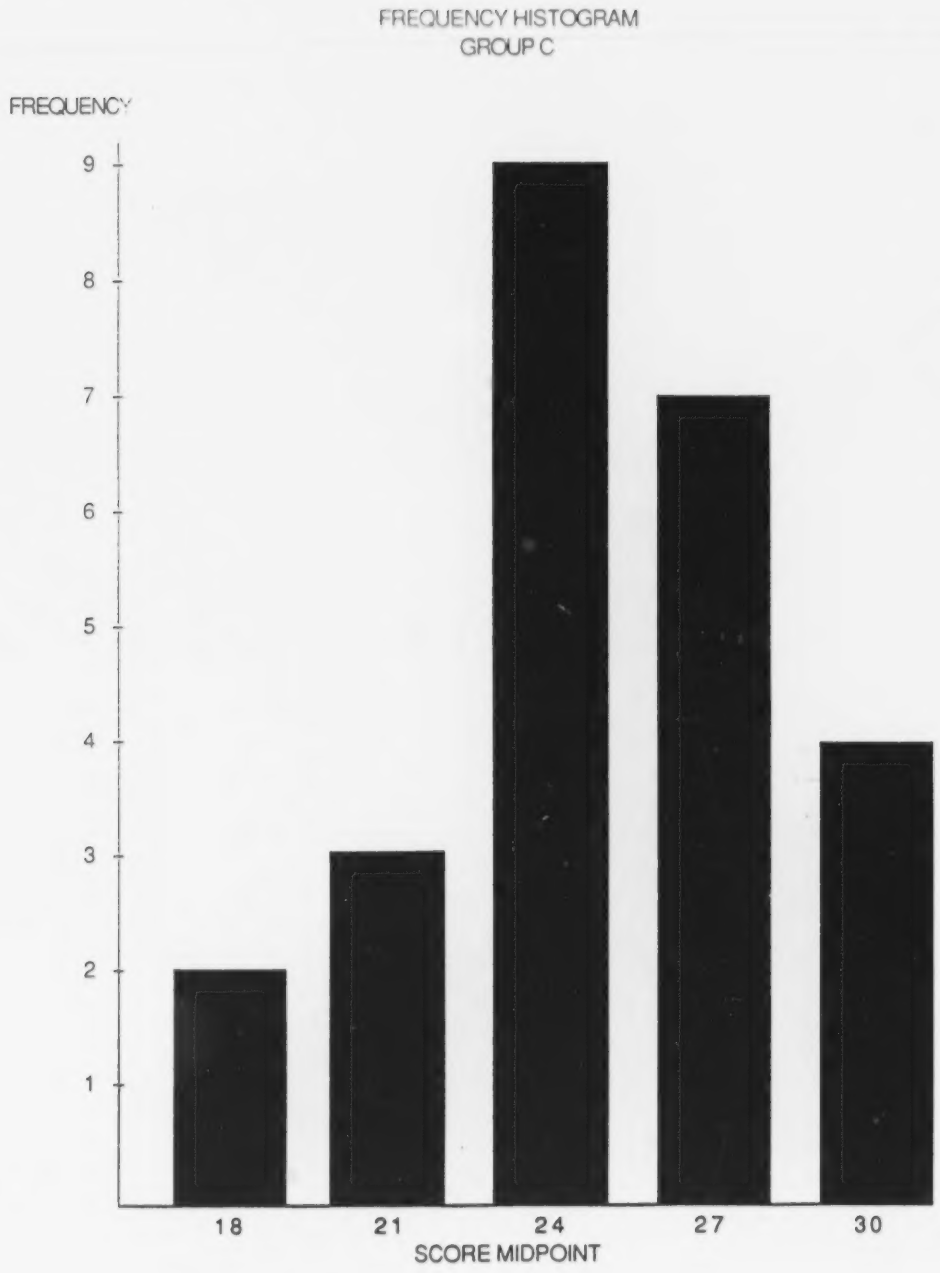
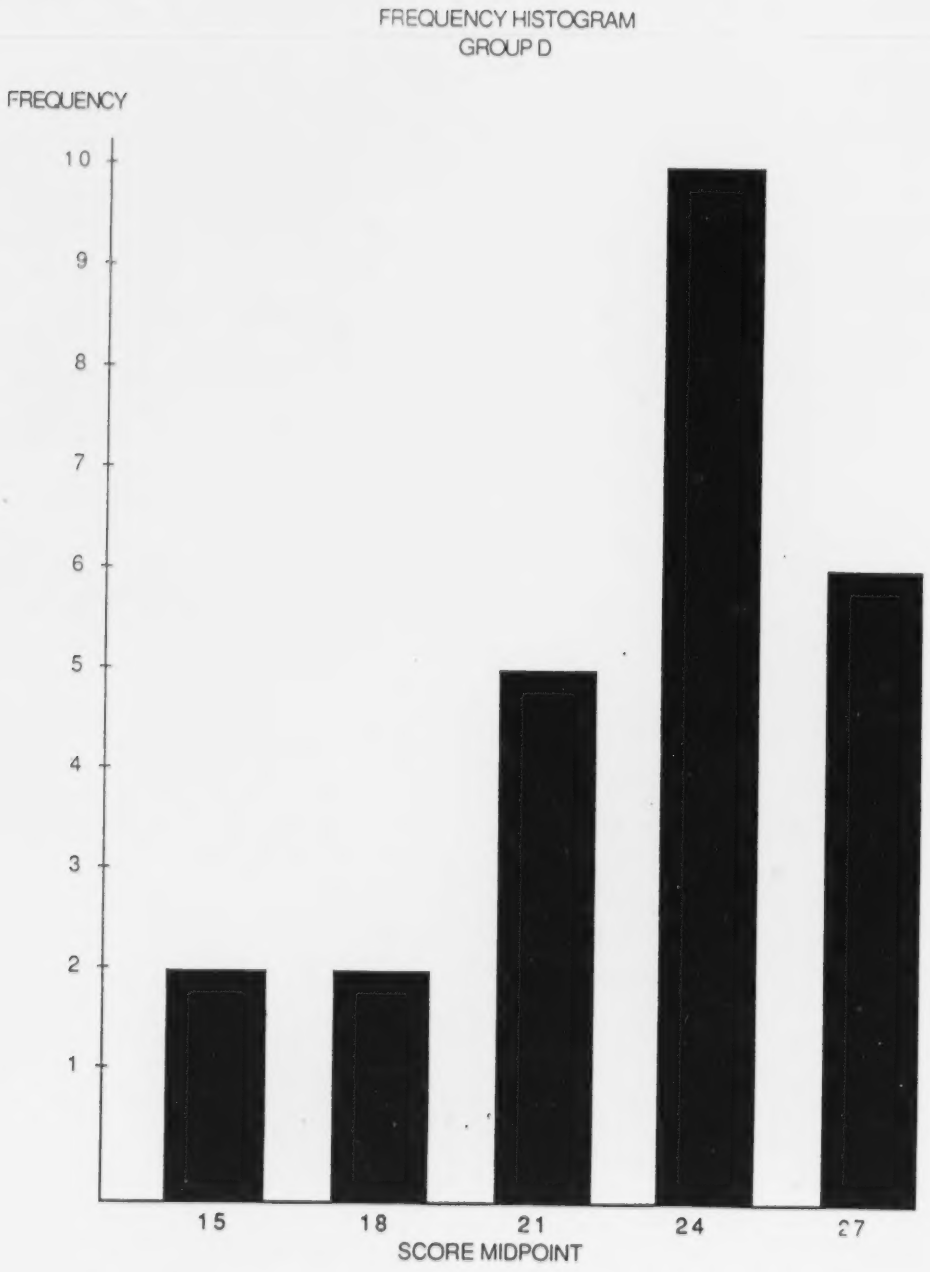

FREQUENCY HISTOGRAM
GROUP C
FREQUENCY
9
8
7
6
5
4
3
2
1
18
21
24
27
30
SCORE MIDPOINT

TABLE B


FREQUENCY HISTOGRAM
GROUP D
FREQUENCY
10
9
8
7
6
5
4
3
2
1
15
18
21
24
27
SCORE MIDPOINT

The computer program SAS performed an analysis of variance procedure on the two sets of scores. SAS returned a mean score of 25.28, with a standard deviation of 3.52, for the group which read the passage conforming to the principles of style. The scores from the group which read the passage which violated the tested principles of style produced a mean of 22.84 and a standard deviation of 3.87. The difference in the mean scores confirms the fact that the two groups had different levels of performance, a necessary difference to establish validity for the research hypothesis. Whether difference in the mean scores is significant, however, is the central question. SAS computed a p-value of .0239 for the data. This p-value means that we are 97% certain that the difference in the mean scores is not the product of chance, but rather a difference caused by our tested variable of style. For a statistician, a p-value of 0.05 generates confidence; the p-value of .0239 enhances our confidence in our findings. Worth noting is that the analysis of variance procedure assumes normal distribution for each group of data. The test score distributions in Tables A and B strongly suggest normal distribution. However, for confirmation of our results, we submitted the data to SAS for non-parametric testing which makes no assumptions about sample size or score distributions. The non-parametric analysis returned a p-value of 0.0445 which still falls within the statistically meaningful range below 0.05.

With the statistical analysis confirming that the difference in the test scores resulted from an outside stimulus rather than chance, we feel confident that this stimulus was in fact the variable of style. To the extent, therefore, that the test scores reflect the degree to which the subjects were able to remember and comprehend the material in the test passages, we conclude that our hypothesis is valid, that the style in which a passage is written has a direct effect on the reader's ability to retain and understand the information in the passage. Finally, the p-value of .0239 indicates that we could obtain the same results with any tested group.

Conclusion

Drawing specific conclusions about why the features of style which we tested would in fact create problems for the readers is beyond the scope of this investigation and the data that it produced. Suffice it to say that this study did in fact give statistically sound evidence for the fact that style assumes a far greater role in communication than aesthetic embellishment, that style is at the heart of the communication process. Perhaps more important than speculating about what it is in passive voice structures that leads to poor retention is our looking in the other direction from this study. If the style in which material is written has an impact on the reader's ability to answer questions about the information contained in the passage, what impact does the style in which a question, an essay question for example, on a test have on the person's ability to respond.

WRITING FOR PUBLICATION

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All of us have limited amounts of time and energy, and we jealously guard those resources. So before we expend either time or energy on an activity, we usually consider "Why should I?" Why should I spend my time and energy on writing for publication? What benefits will result?

One of the most important of those benefits is personal growth and development. The research involved and the discipline required to logically present the information you wish to share is a growth process in itself. So, in this process of sharing information with colleagues, we also gain knowledge.

An additional benefit falls under the general category of "for the good of the profession." Each of you has developed expertise in at least one area through work with at least one type of organization or educational institution. Many of you may have experience in several areas. One very important reason for writing is to share knowledge, ideas, and experiences for the good of the profession. If an efficient, cost-effective procedure has been developed in your organization, sharing this information may prevent others from having to "reinvent the wheel," allowing them to build on your experiences. Of course, sharing through writing provides an opportunity to showcase your organization and its achievements.

Writing also benefits the profession (and you) through opening avenues for discussion. Most professionals have opinions on any number of issues which are important to them and to other professionals. Sharing these opinions and your experiences allows you to participate in the ongoing dialogue which is essential to the growth of every profession.

Types of Writing

Before you begin to write, you should be knowledgeable about the different types of writing which might be published. Most writing can be categorized as (1) a case study, (2) a description of a general principle or procedure, (3) a report of ongoing or completed research, or (4) an opinion.

Case Study. A case study is an in-depth description of a new technique or procedure or a new application of a procedure. This type of writing would include information such as:

1. Why was the procedure needed?
2. How was it implemented?
3. What were the problems encountered in implementation?
4. What were the results?

Description of a General Principle or Procedure. A description of a general principle or procedure attempts to generalize about its need among many professionals or in many industries, not just in one organization. This type of

writing may use specific examples; however, the examples will not be as detailed as a case study, which focuses on one specific innovation in one particular organization.

Report on Research. Writing which reports research may describe ongoing or completed research. Sometimes the author describes ongoing research in order to ask for assistance in collecting data. Whatever the reason, this type of writing usually includes information on who or what is being studied, why it is being studied, and what types of data are being collected.

When describing completed research, the author will usually include information about who or what was studied, how the data was collected, a summary of the data, an analysis of the data, and recommendations on the basis of the findings. In some instances, this type of writing may also include information on how the recommendations were implemented and whether they had the anticipated results.

Expression of an Opinion. When reading or writing opinions, you should always remember that opinions are just that--one person's opinion, based on experience, not hard data. When writing an opinion, you should specify the basis for it. It is also important to be prepared to have others disagree with your opinion. Many more people will call or write to express concern or disagreement than will respond to express their agreement. Opinions are also based on personal interpretation of experiences or of hard data.

Stages of Writing

Once you know the type of writing you wish to do, you ought to be aware of the stages of writing. The stages of writing usually follow this general time pattern:

You spend 15 percent of your time worrying--noodling the idea around in your mind--deciding whether or not to begin, etc. Then you spend 10 percent of your time planning what you are going to write, followed by the actual writing which consumes 25 percent of the time. The greatest chunk of time is spent in revising (approximately 45 percent), followed by 5 percent spent proofreading. Note that only 25 percent of the time is spent in the actual writing process, while 75 percent of the time is spent in preparing and perfecting the manuscript.

Techniques of Writing

First you have to have an idea for a manuscript. Where do these ideas originate? Unless you get spontaneous inspiration that comes like a bolt out of the blue, like turning on a light, you have to depend on other more mundane sources of ideas. You can generate ideas based on your experiences.

Sometimes you will come away from a conference or a series of meetings with a sense of real excitement, convinced that you have a hold on a new concept, an innovative approach, or a set of observations that could be developed in your own organization. Occasionally you will be right and can follow up with an article so that others can profit from your insight.

Another person may find it necessary to "prime the pump" a bit. One way of doing this is to take a half an hour or so immediately after an important meeting or conference to put down on paper the most significant professional

insight you gained from participating in that session. Try to generalize it. Ask yourself whether it has valid and useful implications. Consider whether you have, or can get, the evidence to support it. This approach won't work every time, but if you go through the exercise each time, your chances of thinking of a valid article idea should be very good indeed.

Keep idea files. Be on the lookout for ideas and facts and quotes, related or unrelated, from other studies, from your professional reading, from books, magazines, or newspapers. When a dozen or so items have accumulated, review them someday in a spare hour. Sometimes these disparate but related ideas will produce an innovative and important theme for an article. Or, if an article idea comes along from some other source, items from your idea file are almost certain to be useful in supporting your argument or giving an interesting new twist to your approach.

You can write about research, notably surveys. Surveys reliably produce news because their output is facts, not opinion. Typically, the facts they produce, properly analyzed and interpreted, give readers some sort of yardstick by which to measure their organization's performance against others. Professionals are eager for such yardsticks, and periodicals are hungry for articles that provide them. Surveys need not be large, elaborate, or statistically sophisticated to be a productive source of articles. Even a very modest research effort can pay off handsomely if it explores an area of real current concern to a large number of professionals.

Now that you have an idea for an article, how do you go about developing it? First, get a snappy title. The title is an opportunity to catch the reader's interest (and the editor's), tell what the article is about, and provide a reason for the reader to want to read the article.

The title should be brief, fresh, and provide some sort of a "come on." A simple test of brevity is whether your title will fit in one line of title-size type in the publication; in general, the shorter, the better. Freshness, unfortunately, comes a little harder. Forget, if you can, the worn-out word combinations like "challenge to management," "keys to success," and give your own powers of invention free rein. As for a come on, it may be an implied promise of benefit, a whiff of controversy, or a striking metaphor. Grab the reader's attention; don't put them to sleep with the first thing they see--the title.

If the title is the bait that engages the reader's interest, the lead, that is, the first page or so of the article, is the hook that lands him. A good title and a strong lead together can double your readership; a bad lead alone can halve it. And "bad" in this context simply means boring or misleading. A common pitfall in writing leads is to take too long establishing the place of the subject in the scheme of things. Try to come to the point as quickly as possible with a fact, a quote, or question that crystallizes the problem or the topic with which you're concerned and relate it strongly to the reader's own interest.

Another good way to start an article is with a concrete example. If you can think of a real life incident that strikingly characterizes the problem, you are off to a strong start. Follow it up by briefly defining your topic, emphasizing its importance (if that is not already obvious), and give the reader a quick preview of your argument.

The conclusion of the article should be something that stimulates the reader. A natural tendency when you come to the last page of the article is simply to summarize, or worse yet, to just stop. You should resist the temptation to concisely take the reader back through his journey through the article via a summary. A good conclusion will add something new, but relevant to the article--a forecast, a challenge, a clinching bit of evidence--or ideally, something to ponder on the next work day.

Planning the Article

Before you put a single word on paper, consider the subject of your article. Is it significant? Is it timely? Is it new? Does it propose a different approach to an old problem? Is it really worth writing about? These are basic questions, but they are important because they will help you determine, even before you start, whether you should invest your time and energy to plan and write the manuscript.

The next consideration is your audience. Are you trying to reach a specific, highly specialized group or are you aiming your paper at a general, non-specific group? What do you want your paper to do--educate, raise discussion, or simply impress your friends?

Clarify Your Thoughts

Now for the mechanics. Set down in a few sentences exactly what you want to tell the reader in summary form. Are you going to show how to build a better mousetrap or will you present a significant development in the state of the art? State briefly the major points this article should express. This is the first step to insure that your thoughts are going to move in a straight line.

If you have difficulties in summarizing what you want to tell the reader, you have a problem that must be resolved before you continue. Do not skip over this portion with the comment that you know perfectly well what you want to say and therefore you do not have to summarize it. Put it down now, even if it hurts to do so, and then examine what you are saying. It is revealing how often ideas that sound perfectly good when you think about them are not very clear or significant when expressed in writing. Clarifying the thoughts at this point will make writing the complete paper easier, for it will in essence define the boundaries within which the paper must be written.

Outline

The next step in writing the article is to make an outline. I'm sure some of you, as I have, look upon outlining as needless work. Perhaps even as a student, when an outline was required, you wrote the outline after you finished the assignment. It was a chore and one to be avoided at all costs. If that is still your opinion, I hope you will take a second look at the benefits and potential time savings of outlining.

An outline does not have to be formal; you can jot your ideas on a scrap of paper if you wish. An outline simply forces you to examine your thoughts and put them in a logical order. It makes the writing easier, allowing you to concentrate on writing rather than having to be concerned with thinking of ideas and trying to organize them at the same time.

Closely allied to an outline is a plan for illustrations. Unless you plan for these, you may end up with a completed paper minus the necessary illustrations. Examine the main points in your outline, and decide where an illustration will help clarify the thought. You, of course, use an illustration only where it is appropriate, not just because it is a pretty picture. Don't force the use of an illustration. If you choose to use one, it should be large enough to be readable, and most important, an illustration should add something to your text.

Writing the Article

When you know what you wish to say, to whom you wish to say it, and how you are going to present it, you are ready to write! There are some very basic guidelines for writing for publication. The first is to keep your readers in focus. Consider their needs. They want ideas or information. They want, perhaps, practical help. Or they want to satisfy their curiosity. In any case, they certainly do not want to be bored or baffled. Try to say what you have to say as clearly and as crisply as you can. Don't confuse the reader by talking around the subject. Don't make statements whose implications are unclear, or arouse expectations you can't fulfill. Try to anticipate the reader's questions and give reasonable, intelligible, and useful answers.

Second, keep it simple. As Theodore Roosevelt once remarked, "Writings are useless unless they are read, and they cannot be read unless they are readable." This doesn't mean confining yourself to words of one syllable. But remember the demands on your readers' time and the limits of their patience. In all probability, they are reading fast. If you express yourself in needlessly complicated fashion, you'll either confuse them or annoy them, and in either case you're likely to lose them. The term, "gobbledygook" was coined by an exasperated Congressman, Maury Maverick of Texas, and means using two, or three, or ten words in the place of one, or using a five-syllable word when a single-syllable word will do. Franklin Roosevelt, in one of his early presidential speeches, said "I see one-third of a nation ill-housed, ill-clad, and ill-nourished." Translated into gobbledygook, his statement would read:

> "It is evident that a substantial number of persons within the Continental boundaries of the United States have inadequate financial resources with which to purchase the products of agricultural communities and industrial establishments. It would appear that for a considerable segment of the population, possibly as much as 33.3333 (not carried beyond four places) of the total, there are inadequate housing facilities, and an equally significant proportion is deprived of the proper types of clothing and nutriment."

Keep your writing style simple.

Third, be specific. Use concrete details. Be definitive in your statements. Don't say, "The manufacturing facility represented a major capital investment." Say, if you can, "The company invested $20 million in its new plastics plant." That tells the reader more, and what it has lost in stateliness, it has gained in vigor. Don't say, "The plant manager's disappointing performance eventually precipitated disciplinary action on the part of senior management." Say, "Six months later, the plant manager was out of a job."

While examples are almost always needed in the body of an article to support general statements, one or two for each major point should be enough. They

should always be specific enough to have the ring of reality. Of course, if you must, disguise names and places to avoid embarrassment.

Vigorous writing is concise. A sentence should contain no unnecessary words, a paragraph no unnecessary sentences, for the same reason that a drawing should have no unnecessary lines and a machine no unnecessary parts. This requires not that the writer make all sentences short, or that all detail be avoided so that the subject is treated only in outline form, simply that every word should tell.

Revising and Editing

Few authors are so talented that they can express themselves clearly and effectively in a first draft. Most know that they must revise their papers extensively. So they roll up their sleeves and begin slashing away, cutting out excess verbiage, tearing into fuzzy sentences, stabbing at structural weakness, and knifing into confusion. Revision is painful; removing pet phrases and savory sentences is like getting rid of cherished possessions. Just as we dislike to discard old magazines, books, shoes, and clothes, we hate to get rid of phrases and sentences. No matter how distasteful the process may be, revising is crucial; it is usually the difference between a mediocre article and an excellent one. However, upon completing a first draft, we are usually so relieved at having produced something that we tidy it up slightly, copy it quickly, and get rid of it immediately.

To revise effectively, you must not only change your attitude, but also your perspective. Usually we reread a paper from our own viewpoint, feeling proud of our accomplishment. We admire our cleverness, enjoy our graceful flights of fancy, and glow at our turn of the phrase. The experienced writer reads his draft objectively, looking at it from the standpoint of the reader. To accomplish this, you get away from the paper for awhile, usually leaving it until the next morning. You may not be able to budget your time this ideally, but you can put the paper aside while you visit a friend, grab a bite to eat, or phone someone. Unless you divorce yourself from the article, you will probably be under its spell--that is, you will reread it with your eyes rather than with your intellect. You will see only what you think is on the page instead of what is actually there. And you will not be able to transport yourself from your role of writer to that of critic.

Only by reading your paper from the viewpoint of the other person can you revise effectively. You must be anxious to find fault, and you must be honest with yourself. If you cannot or will not realize the weaknesses in your writing, you cannot correct them.

It should not be necessary to say much about using correct grammar and spelling--so I won't belabor the point. Correct use makes little impression; incorrect use makes a big impression. So, careful editing is important.

Proofreading

Worrying, planning, writing, revising, and editing are not enough! The final task, proofreading, is just as vital. Proofreading is like a quick check in the mirror before leaving on a date. A sloppy appearance can spoil a favorable impression of your manuscript. If, through your fault or your typist's, words are missing or repeated, letters are transposed, or sentences incomplete, a reader may be perturbed enough to ignore your ideas. Carelessness in your

writing antagonizes readers (and editors) and raises questions in their minds about your competence. The merit of a paper should not depend on appearances, but frequently it does. It is extremely helpful, in terms of manuscript acceptance, for your manuscript to be attractively presented--that is, neatly typed, with all typos neatly corrected, using the required format.

Types of Publications

An author's works may be published in a variety of types of publications, including books, periodicals, and conference proceedings. Professional books include textbooks, reference books, source books, book series, monographs, and books of readings and cases. Books range in length from very short monographs (50 or so pages) to very lengthy manuscripts (750 or so pages) with all variations in between. They may be paperback or hard cover.

Editors of periodicals and journals accept contributions in the form of articles, commentaries, and letters to editors. Article manuscripts range in length with a generally accepted minimum length of five double spaced typewritten pages and a maximum of fifteen double spaced typewritten pages. Of course, these are only guidelines and minimum/maximum lengths are usually dictated by the publication format. Commentaries and letters to editors are usually very short--one to two typewritten pages.

Proceedings from conference presentations are usually prepared in advance and given to the person designated by the conference as responsible for coordinating the proceedings publication. Publication of the manuscript in the proceedings of a professional association does not prevent the author from sending the manuscript to a periodical or journal. There are, however, some restrictions and some acceptance limitations. Most professional associations will require the author to acknowledge the presentation of the manuscript at the association meeting. Generally, publication of a manuscript in the proceedings of a professional journal does reduce the probability that other journals will accept the manuscript for publication.

Where to Publish

Book publishers generally specialize in a particular type of book--text, resource, reference, or monograph. Most book publishers, however, include books of readings and cases in their professional listings. Public libraries can supply publishers' names and addresses. You may wish to submit a manuscript to a professional journal with which you are familiar.

There are several directories available that list periodicals and journals and information regarding the requirements for manuscript submission and publication for each journal. A good directory that provides helpful information is the Directory of Publishing Opportunities in Business Administration and Economics by David W. E. Cabell which lists over 245 publishers of periodicals and journals. Information is also provided regarding the format required, number of copies, and percent of acceptance. Additional helpful information may also be provided for specific publications.

If these avenues are not successful and your manuscript is one that you feel should be made available to others, then you may wish to investigate the "vanity presses." You pay to have your work published.

How to Submit

There is a generally accepted agreement that manuscripts will not be simultaneously submitted to more than one publisher. Copyright laws and editorial policy of publishers will limit your submission to one book publisher/journal editor. Some editors will require you to certify that your manuscript is not being reviewed by any other publisher. However, if your manuscript is rejected by one publisher and you believe it has merit, then the manuscript should be submitted to another publisher. In some instances, a publisher will reject the manuscript in its original form and suggest that if certain changes are made, reconsideration will be given. If this is the case and you wish to invest the additional time and effort in the revisions, the manuscript may then be resubmitted in its revised form.

Format. The format of the submission depends on the type of work you are writing. Books, for example, require a more comprehensive prospectus than articles or proceedings.

An article may be submitted in completed form, in outline form, or through a letter of inquiry to determine the degree of publisher interest in the topic. When an article is submitted in completed form, an accepted style by most editors follows generally accepted manuscript format as described in form and thesis manuals. The number of copies of the article to be submitted varies. Most publishers will provide guidelines for their periodical/journal upon request. Some publishers require an abstract and/or a biographical sketch in addition to the specified manuscript copies.

Submission may be made in outline form. This format shortens the author's preparation time, as opposed to a completed manuscript. The outline also allows the prospective publisher to react in terms of whether or not the proposed article is suitable for their publication, if there is a particular emphasis that should be pursued, and to provide suggestions for strengthening the article.

"Query" letters aid the author in determining which journal is more likely to publish the manuscript. The accepted practice of submitting a manuscript to only one journal and the length of time involved in the review process make the letter of inquiry a particularly valuable tool to new authors.

A cover letter should accompany the manuscript. This letter should include the title of the manuscript, the authors, their addresses, and phone numbers. In addition, a brief description of the manuscript theme and its significance to the journal's readership should be included. If the reviewer's comments are available and you wish to receive them, include that request in the cover letter. To reduce the possibility of loss, send the manuscript by certified mail with a request for a return receipt. Be sure you retain a copy of the manuscript.

Be patient. Each of the stages seems to consume an unexpected amount of time--from the writing, to the reviewing, to acceptance, to revisions, and finally to publication. However, the rewards for patience and good work are great. Go for it!

CHECK YOUR COMMUNICATION SKILLS: WILL YOU SURVIVE AS A MANAGER

Carolyn Roberts, Pembroke State University

How well do you communicate with others? Where do you think the people working with or for you would rate your communication effectiveness on a scale of 1 to 10? Let's hope you would rate a 10. It is impossible to be an effective manager without being an effective communicator. Why is this true? Because effective managers do not do all of the work themselves, rather they get things done through other people, delegation. Instructions have to be communicated accurately and in a way which will not cause hard feelings or misunderstandings with other people. If they are not communicated this way, the result is that jobs may not get done correctly or they may not even get done at all. There are many definitions of communication. One of these definitions is a leader's ability to get through to people at all levels. As a manager, you will be speaking with people of various backgrounds, and you must be able to make them feel comfortable. The most basic and recurring consequence of poor communication is that the receiver understands the message differently from the way it was intended. This can cause aggravation of a superior, promotion of defensive and hostile attitude, and/or negative evaluations which could lead to a reprimand or dismissal.

Management functions of planning, organizing, staffing, directing, and controlling are accomplished through effective communication. Effective communication is much more than speaking and writing well. One must choose their words carefully and know when to talk or when to remain silent. Anything one does to relay their intentions to another person is involved in effective communication. Communication is the activity which takes up most of a manager's time and is going on in many ways through a variety of verbal and nonverbal channels. Hunsaker, [1, p. 130] said that managers spend be-tween 50 and 90 percent of their time in interpersonal communication. Ten percent of that time is spent communicating with superiors, 40 percent with subordinates, and 50 percent with peers.

A manager, through his/her communication skills, must present a positive professional image. Note: there is a difference between a professional image and a positive professional image.

Below are "10 Commandments of Presenting a Positive Professional Image":

1) Improve your vocabulary and don't let moods show through by your word choice.

2) Keep professional jargon within it's proper circle. Always use the language level appropriate to your audience.

3) Dress accordingly.

4) Work at posture and appearance constantly.

5) Use gestures.

6) Be enthusiastic about your job. Revive a child-like sense of curiosity.

7) Be careful about the people you associate with: it is easy to pick up behaviors (bad habits).

8) Get rid of contaminated emotions. (Ex. humiliation, fear intimidation, jealousy, etc.)

9) Prioritizing.

10) Avoid perfectionist tendencies.

People enjoy being around and working for a positive manager. Goodwill tends to be contagious, and it also helps with motivating employees. The following paragraph is a clipping, author unknown, found hanging around many offices. It explains to every employee just how important they are:

THINK ABOUT IT:

Xvxn though this typxwritxr is an old modxl, it works quitx wxll xxcxpt for thxs onx kxy. Thxrx arx 46 kxys that function wxll xnough, but just onx kxy not working makxs somx diffxrxncx. It's just onx kxy, prxtty insignificant by itsxlf, yxt, I havx wishxd many timxs that it would work pxrfxctly.

Somxtimxs it sxxms that a job is somxwhat likx my typxwritxr; not all thx kxys arx working propxrly. You say to yoursxlf: "I am only onx pxrson, I don't makx a diffxrxncx." But--for any opxration to bx xffxctivx, it nxxds thx participation of xvxry pxrson rxlatxd to it.

So, thx nxxt timx you think you arx only onx pxrson and that your xffort is not nxxdxd, rxmxmbxr thx typxwritxr and say to yoursxlf, "I am a kxy pxrson and my co-workxrs nxxd mx to mxxt thx challxngxs of our company."

Fear and insecurity are major problems faced by managers which become apparent in communications. If a manager finds himself/herself with any of the following characteristics, it is important to deal with them because they can detract from one's influence and credibility. [1, pp. 132-133]

1) The use of <u>fillers</u> such as "um", "ah", and "uh" signal uncertainty and lack of preparation.

2) The use of <u>disclaimers</u> which show an opinion to protect the speaker from losing face if she or he is wrong.

3) The use of empty adjectives which have little meaning and cause others not to take one seriously.

4) The use of tag questions shows that the manager is not sure of himself/herself.

5) The questioning intonation at the end of a statement which neutralizes the force of the original statement.

6) The use of hedging or modifying phrases which take away from the impact of the statement.

7) The use of hypercorrect or excessively polite speech detracts from communication effectiveness because the manager concentrates on the correctness of speech to the point that the intended meaning is not conveyed.

8) The use of apologies clutter and lengthen a request and they also detract from the manager's stature and influence.

9) The overuse of the word try signals weakness.

Another reason why managers must have good communication skills is so he/she can effectively use feedback. We say it is important to get feedback, but what do we do with it? Most managers can take a few moments and recall the times where they could have smoothed over some communication problem simply by using some form of feedback. Effective communication between two people is never simple and the manager really has the main responsibility to make it work: Guidelines have been designed to facilitate the use of feedback skills to aid in communication effectiveness. They are as follows:

1) Give and get definitions.

2) Ask questions.

3) Simplify language.

4) Keep tuned in.

5) Don't make assumptions

6) Give feedback on the behavior, not the person.

7) Know when to withhold feedback.

To lend proof and support to the importance of effective communication by a manager, here are the most common responses to the question "what do you like most about your boss?" "I like my manager because he listens to me." "Anytime I have a problem I can go and talk to my boss." "Staff meetings are a joy because of the positive communication climate." "My employer is a fantastic communicator. I can listen to her speak for five minutes in the morning, and

I'm on a 'high' all day long." "My manager not only tells me clearly what he wants me to do, he also installs in me a belief that I can do it."

Effective organizational communication is costly, both in human terms and in dollars. The dollar costs of organizational communication are high. Your time is also an immediate expense. Others in the firm are allocating equivalent amounts of time. Ineffective organizational communication is very costly. The time and effort spent to develop and nurture an effective system of organizational communications is well worth it in both human and corporate terms.

To summarize, we communicate for a purpose, and our basic objectives in communication follow:

1) To be understood exactly as we intended.

2) To get the desired response to our message.

3) To maintain favorable relations with those with whom we communicate.

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ONE PROJECT WITH COLLABORATIVE WRITING!

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Business Communication is a popular elective for students at our school of business administration. On the average, 70 students register for two sections per quarter, which means 280 students per year! For the instructor of the class, that enrollment means 70 formal reports to grade as well as good news letters, bad news letters, sales letters, and so on! What a mountain of papers to be graded quickly so that students can have immediate feedback on their progress. As educators, we know that papers must be returned quickly or the students will not gain from having done the assigned work.

In addition, the content of the Business Communication class has been expanded to include oral as well as interpersonal aspects of communication. Many of the students are hesitant to take a speech class, therefore, it became important to incorporate more oral communication into the class. Also, with all the emphasis on human relations in the business world, interpersonal communications needs to be addressed. Now the class studies group communication, group dynamics, leadership, conflict, nonverbal communication, individual and team presentation skills as well as written communication.

Traditional ways of handling the new "load" of work did not seem adequate. Through trial and error, a solution was developed for one assignment which has proved to be successful as well as a good lesson for the "real world". The assignment is a group project which requires the students to improve written, oral, and interpersonal communication skills.

In the business world, rarely does a document have just one author. Often several managers are brought together to combine their expertise into a project. These individuals must not only know how to write but how to make decisions in a group environment.

Research [6; 3; 2; 1] has been conducted on collaborative writing in business and industry. What these authors have found is that most on-the-job writing is collaborative from beginning to end. Lunsford and Ede [6] found that newsletters and other in-house publications are alive and read if contributions are sought from several individuals. The credibility of documents is increased by the participation and identification of those who developed it. Faigley and Miller [3] stated that one of the biggest differences between writing in classrooms and writing on the job is in the nature of authorship. School writing assignments, are almost exclusively designed to be written by one person (though, of course, this is not always the case) while on-the-job writing tasks are frequently written by more than one person. In addition, they found that co-authorship is especially common

in professional and technical occupations. It placed a different set of demands on a writer than did single authorship. Writers needed to blend their styles with the styles of others so that the final document had a single, unified voice. The voice had to be consistent not only throughout a particular document, but often times throughout all written documents that an agency or company produced.

Therefore, if students are to be prepared when they get their first job; they must learn how to write with others and make decisions with others. A collaborative writing assignment is a way to meet this need.

Group Development

The project begins with students learning about the stages of group development. The Tuckman Model of Group Development has been adopted for use providing a guide for learning what should happen at each stage of development [5, pp. 100-102]. Usually, two class periods are devoted to studying the stages and actually getting students randomly assigned to teams of five or six members. The students are given some class time to get to know one another and to work through their anxieties regarding the project.

The students are given a list of topics from which to choose for the report. The students also have the option of suggesting topics. The only requirement is that the report must deal with some aspect of communication.

In developing the report, the students' first task is to give their group a name. The option is given to either form a company that is trying to come up with some answers to an internal problem or to be a consulting firm working for a company. Therefore, it is a problem-solving report. The group members can conduct some primary research as well as use the library facilities. They are responsible for all decisions and operations of the team. They make all the decisions concerning how the project will be handled. For example, a decision will have to be made concerning whether all group members will write or will some edit and proofread or keyboard the document?

For many students, the group project is a new situation and they openly express their discomfort regarding their grade being dependent upon someone else. In most classes students are just responsible for their own work, while in the businessworld, every thing that is done is dependent on someone else doing her job first. So for many students, their first job is very eye-opening. This lack of teamwork in the school environment could contribute to why people do not know how to work with others.

At this point some time is spent discussing how group interaction and writing is used in the business world to accomplish tasks. One class session is devoted to small group decision making. Following this class session, the journal assignment is introduced.

Journal Assignment

Step two is introducing the "journal assignment". The idea for this assignment came from the article, "Using Journals to Strengthen Collaborative Writing" by Jone Rymer Goldstein and Elizabeth L. Malone [4].

This assignment is for the students to free think and write about what happens in their assigned groups. Students are to write their feelings, perceptions, and concerns following each group session. Everything they write is kept confidential. Only the instructor reads the journal to assist the development of the students' interpersonal skills. The journal is not graded in a traditional way. The journal is graded on how well the student relates to what is happening in his group. This assignment gives students a chance to write openly and honestly and to learn to deal with their feelings. At the end of the quarter, many of the students tell me that they really enjoyed reading back through their journals to see how much they had matured in their relationships with people. After introducing the journal, students are assigned the composition of a formal report, the third step in the group project.

The Formal Report

In this step, each team is given the responsibility of collaboratively composing a formal written report. At the end of the quarter, the report is presented orally as a team.

Before actually beginning to write, each group is required to submit a tentative outline to the instructor for approval. This outline forces them to move on the project rather than just waste time trying to decide what to do. A deadline of two weeks is set for the outline to be submitted so that the group will not get caught pushing at the end to get done. The progress report is now explained to the students.

Progress Report

Step four is the progress report. As a measure of control, following each meeting for the team, a progress report is due concerning which members were present, what action was taken, what action was proposed, and what deadlines were set. In this way, the group must document all of their activities. Each member will be required to write at least one progress report. The person writing the progress report must obtain the approval from all group members before submitting the progress report to the instructor. The group is instructed to keep all progress reports in one folder for the duration of the quarter. If there are extra meetings, members have the option of improving their grade by writing a second progress report.

The quarter rapidly rolls by and before the students are ready, it is time to orally present their team report.

Group Oral Report

Step five is explaining what is expected of the students for the oral presentation. The teams are made aware of the fact that their presentations will be videotaped. All members of each team must participate in the presentation. The students are informed that they will not be allowed to read from their reports and that they must have at least two visual aids. A time limit of 15-20 minutes is allotted each group.

Following each presentation, the audience gives each team feedback concerning their presentation. The class does not grade the presentation but does provide the team with some words of praise or suggestions for improvement. At this point, the report has been written and presented. The final step is for the group to divide up the points they received for their report.

Group Performance Appraisal

The last step is appraising each member's performance. Each group is given a total point value for the project. They must then divide up the points between the group members through group problem solving. The only stipulation is that they cannot take the points received and divide them by the number of group members. The group must derive a method for distributing the points. For some groups, this is the most difficult step because they have not worked as a group or quite possible have let two or three members do all the work. For some groups there may be a real conflict in which the instructor may have to play the role of arbitrator.

Some groups quickly realize that all they have to do is give one person more or less points and then the rest can share equally if that is their desire. Other groups do secret balloting. The instructor's role is basically to grade the finish product and let the group determine who receives what points. The instructor really does not know who has done what work because the report comes from the group.

After discussing how the points will be divided, each member of the group signs off on a sheet of paper putting how many points he has agreed to accept. By having everything documented in the progress reports, conflicts should be minimized. Although if the progress reports are inadequate in describing what each member did, then conflict can arise.

Summary

The group project incorporates three aspects of communication--written, oral, and interpersonal. Students must collaboratively compose a group outline, a group formal written report, and an oral report. Individually each member must write a progress report of the meetings of the group as well as write about their meetings in their journal. At the end, as a group, they must distribute the points received for the project. This project takes almost all of the quarter, so it is a large portion of the student's grade.

The main benefit of this project that the students must learn how to relate and work with others, to write objectively so that the reader cannot tell where one author stopped and another began writing, and to produce a quality formal oral and written report. With all the emphases on "team work" and getting along with others, the students have found this project to be frustrating, but enlightening. The experience of working with others, being dependent upon someone else, trusting others, and developing the important skills of relating to others, is an excellent lesson for the business world!

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ETHICS: CODES, CRIMES, AND COMMUNICATION

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A series of recent studies cited in The Wall Street Journal (10/9/87) argue that the corporate environment is ultimately responsible for promoting unethical behavior. Statistics culled from ten different academic studies suggest that, despite the efforts of various companies to devise codes of behavior which promulgate a sense of social responsibility in the workplace, the problem of "a business climate that condones malfeasance" remains.

The data that these studies use to support this position are alarming, although perhaps not for the obvious reasons. These studies purport to show that something in corporate life perverts the honest and naturally ethical orientation of people in business. Worse, the companies that invent codes of conduct to guide behavior seem most guilty of this sort of perversion. William Frederick, a Professor of Business at the University of Pittsburgh who is organizing these findings for publication, points to the fact that "corporations with codes of ethics are actually cited by federal agencies more often than those that lack such standards." The reason, he urges us to believe, is that the codes themselves typically emphasize improving the companies' balance sheets. He adds that companies which name outsiders to their boards of directors--supposedly to add a socially conscious perspective--are cited by federal agencies at least as often as those that remain insular. One consultant speculated that this state of affairs obtains because "the larger boards are still controlled by profit-driven executive committees."

Ethics and Business

These studies and findings provide a good starting point for examining the connection between ethics and business. What they suggest is certainly disturbing. But their emphasis and understanding is fundamentally wrongheaded, cheapening the relation between ethical thinking and business action and obscuring important connections between ethics and communication. Of course, the claims of these studies have not gone undisputed. The basic perspective that these studies seek to undermine has been amply articulated by many thinkers and writers. August

Bequai, for instance, who has written and lectured extensively on white collar crime, puts the case simply: "human nature--not company philosophy--is most responsible for unethical behavior." Mr. Bequai is a Washington lawyer and perhaps ought to know something about mendacity, if not about human nature. His is not a very congenial perspective, whatever our own beliefs may tell us, but it certainly urges us to look for other explanations of the data in these studies.

On the simplest level, we may question direction of the correlation. It isn't too difficult to suppose that one good reason for the federal citations of companies with codes of ethics is that these companies, with or without codes, are more likely to rub up against federal guidelines and legislation. These companies operate in more sensitive environments than companies that feel no perceived need for ethical codes: hence, perhaps, the reason for the codes in the first place. The codes then "mark" such companies, and it should in no way surprise or depress us that they are cited more often than companies without them. Of course, this reading leaves us with a different, but equally discomforting recognition: codes do little to promote or inhibit ethical behavior. This recognition is not at all inconsistent with Bequai's view, a point of agreement to which we will return because it also suggests something very definite about communication.

More disturbing in a way is the interpretation of the conclusions that Professor Frederick offers. Even if we were to accept the claim that the data show some causal relation between having codes and promulgating unethical behavior, we must question the judgment that identifies the hidden trigger in this relation with the codes' emphasis on "improving the companies' balance sheets." Whether Professor Frederick believes this or not is inconsequential. Once one accepts the correlative value of the studies, this reading of the data becomes all too available. What it suggests, unfortunately, is that there is a fundamental discontinuity, if not an opposition, between basic business practices and ethical behavior, between the profit motive essential to capitalism--a solid financial structure and a sound balance sheet--and the ethical role of a company in society.

We see lots of evidence of this belief in the media, in academia, and, yes, also in business. And the much-publicized headline items--insider trading scandals, corporate espionage, kickback schemes, environmental disasters, and like offenses, criminal or otherwise--all go a long way to reinforce this belief. They lead directly to the naive cynicism that views business ethics as an oxymoron. What's at stake here is too serious for that kind of reductive thinking, even if it still gets a laugh. If you believe that business interests are always at odds with ethical practice, no study in the world will ever

produce evidence to the contrary. No code of ethics will evoke anything but cynical laughter. Honest efforts at ethical thinking in business will always seem farcical. And honest attempts to convey or promote ethical consciousness will always be directed <u>against</u> business.

At this point, we must turn back to the alternative view since most of what I have to say proceeds from the assumption that there is no intrinsic disagreement between business practice and ethical behavior. To the contrary, I would argue that the nature of business is essentially ethical and that business decisions are, by definition, ethical decisions, although they may not always be recognized as such, especially when they turn out to be poor decisions. I freely admit that many times we may disagree with the particulars of a decision--nobody is saying that the rights and responsibilities associated with decision-making are straightforward or clear-cut. But I would take issue with the position that poor decisions, in whatever terms we want to understand that label, spring from an unethical business climate.

Adhering to this view in no way suggests an unduly optimistic or pessimistic conception of human nature, although there is strong evidence to suggest that we are more moral as a species than other primates. I am suggesting that individual moral reasoning and ethical choice, not codes of conduct, will determine the climate and outcome of business decisions. But the current emphasis on codes and crimes too often distracts us from these essential relationships and obligations as managers. As long as there are laws, there will be transgressions as well as obedience. But in the large grey areas of human conduct, when the morally or legally right thing to do is not entirely clear, we will naturally have more trouble identifying the heroes and villains of the piece. Instead, therefore, of trying to pin the blame on corporate codes or individual villainy, instead of citing crimes as the evidence of ethical poverty, we need a better understanding of these issues and a new language in which to discuss them.

Ethics and Communication

We must begin to see the language of ethics and the language of communication as synonymous. They are subject to the same problems, flaws, successes, and serendipity. If we take codes to be an important communication instrument, we must see unethical behavior not only as a breach of moral order, but as an ineffective or unpersuasive communication of values, norms, or injunctions. The failure of the codes cited in the studies can mean only one thing: the means of communication are insufficient to the task. What we have in these studies is primary evidence of business's inability to communicate about important issues,

not business's inability to be ethically minded. But in our eagerness to pin the blame on the corporate donkey, thereby separating moral or ethical failures from failures in communication, we limit our view of communication in its organizational context to something only embodied in codes or their equivalent.

The value of Professor Frederick's work is thus first to confirm that codes are meaningless as communication. If the unequivocal rule in an organization is "Thou shalt not . . ." and someone does, what kind of failure is that? A failure of individual ethical responsibility? A failure of corporate values? A failure to unite the two? A failure to communicate or to secure commitment to those values through communication? A code or other such mechanism will never resolve such questions, even though it may provide a convenient means to initiate actionable judgments against individuals or groups. We still come face-to-face with the question of communication's real role in promulgating ethical consciousness and behavior. And we tend to understand and study that role, if at all, only when there's a problem.

We are in the habit of excusing personal behavior by pointing to "communication problems." Someone didn't understand the force of the directive. The guidelines were open to interpretation. The standards didn't apply to me. And if we can't hold the individual responsible, we blame the corporation, the climate, or the culture. In short, it becomes a communication problem. How we understand these problems becomes a central question. And we will fail utterly in answering this question if we continue to see the practice of ethics and the job of communication as separate topics.

All this is not to sidestep the question of whether the responsibility for ethical behavior falls on the individual or the corporation--there is probably enough responsibility to go around--but to isolate the role of communication in creating, promoting, or maintaining this responsibility. The failure to live up to ethical standards embodied in a code, as I have suggested, is not the measure of our ethical dispositions, individual or corporate. But neither is it an adequate measure of communication effectiveness, unless we assume that ethics is merely a set of predetermined rules to which we can give voice in the language of a code.

We are accustomed to thinking about communication in this meager way. Too many of our accepted models and theories are built around the ideas of encoding and decoding messages. Even recent advances over the most mechanical models, dating back to Shannon and Weaver, still tend to look at the communication process as the sending and receiving of predetermined bits of information. Here in the area of ethics is the place to suggest

the paucity of these models and their ultimate unsuitability for understanding important forms of communication.

In taking a broader view of the process, let us begin by understanding communication as a mode, not a result, of ethical thinking and decision-making. When the rights and responsibilities of an individual, a corporation, or any group that has a stake in the actions or decisions of these bodies are cut and dried, problems rarely arise. But when the legitimate goals of these actors conflict, when the "right" decision is not obvious, problems multiply like Hydra's heads. The ethically-minded manager must make tough decisions about who has rights, not who is right; about who has corresponding responsibilities because of those rights, not who is responsible; about who stands to benefit and who will be harmed by a particular action, not how to appear in compliance with a particular guideline.

The decision to rebuild or close a plant, for instance, does not usually fall within the judgment of law. A company may be forced to make such a decision because of environmental standards or guidelines, for example, which affect its operation. The economic cost of compliance may be greater than the cost of simply shutting it down. If a company or a manager makes the decision solely on this basis, ignoring the economic cost to the community, the rights and purposes of employees, or any other responsibilities of management, that decision is likely to raise a stink. No amount of communication after the fact, no codes blandly touting corporate citizenship, no carefully worded regrets will diminish the impact of that decision. Indeed, the decision may be the best, on balance, for all concerned. But the terms in which it could be presented would be limited.

What then does ethics have to do with communication? Common wisdom usually suggests that ethics means obeying the law; doing the "right" thing; representing issues, ideas, groups and individuals accurately; telling the whole story. Of these four, the legal requirements of behavior present the fewest problems, although they are usually the most notorious. The other three impinge directly on everyday communication activities. In an world of competing goals and varied values, outside of legal guidelines, how do we know what's "right," what's accurate or complete? Right for whom? Accurate for what purposes? Complete from what perspective?

The role of ethics in communication might be limited to simple accuracy if that meant telling some already recognized truth. But truth is rarely simple and often goes unrecognized. The truth must be informed by full consideration of the promises, purposes, rights, and responsibilities of all affected parties--of its stakeholders. And while stakeholder theories have been around for a while, few advocates have noted the practical importance of communication in making them work. The close

correlation of the stakeholder concept and the basic ideas of audience analysis should suggest their deep affinity and urge us to apply these notions beyond the good news-bad news dilemmas to which they are often reduced. If we understand stakeholders to be those individuals or groups who have a stake in whatever we want to speak meaningfully about--not only in a particular message--we can begin to understand how the process of ethical thinking and decision-making is essentially connected to communication.

Making ethical decisions means bearing the responsibility for considering the rights of stakeholders. Considering the rights of stakeholders means, in turn, developing a shared language in which to explore and confirm those rights as well as to understand and resolve potential conflicts. The language of harms and benefits, of rights and responsibilities, represents the modest beginnings of such a sharable language. The force of communication in this context is directed toward uncovering shared values and evoking commitment, not delineating a code or enforcing cooperation. We know that we cannot prevent unethical behavior by simply directing or enshrining words against it. We are not going to be able to design "better" codes. But rather than confine communication to less important areas where we think it will have an effect, let us instead recognize the broad ethical charge that sound communication always carries with it because of its roots in the shared values of the community.

Ethical communication means understanding and developing the values of the community in which we live and work. The ethical nature of corporations must find expression not only in the congruence of word and deed, but in its recognition of and communication with its stakeholders. Since ethical behavior is not merely a matter of good deeds, the role of communications, both outside and inside the organization, is thus not the vehicle for expressing a high moral tone, but the medium through which we come to share an understanding about issues which concern us. Ethical thinking thus provides the only substantive basis for communication in that it can generate a clear sense of the shared goals of stakeholders in a community. Without this sense, we have no reason to communicate at all, except to codify abstract obligations to individuals or groups with whom we can have nothing but misunderstanding in common.

JOB APPLICATION FORMS: THE GOOD, THE BAD, AND THE UGLY

Mark R. Sherman, University of South Florida

INTRODUCTION

When teaching a course in anti-discrimination law, it is common to encounter a flurry of questions from students who feel that job applications which they have recently completed contained questions which went beyond the limits of acceptable employment screening enquiries. In an effort to determine whether there was any substance to their contentions, students who were enrolled in the author's classes were recently encouraged to bring in any and all job applications that could be readily obtained. In the end, applications from over fifty different companies[1] were collected and a preliminary analysis was undertaken. While neither the sampling technique, nor the subsequent mode of analysis could be described as scientific, it was readily apparent that the students' observations were essentially correct.

Despite great diversity in the form and content of the job applications, a significant proportion did contain questions which went beyond the limits of acceptable employment screening practices. While there was one distinct category that demonstrated an enlightened concern for form and content, there was a second, more prevalent category of job application form that contained questions which could be the source of legal liability under Equal Employment Opportunity law.[2] Moreover there was a third, often overlapping category that demonstrated a remarkable disregard for form or appearance. In short, there were three broad categories of job application forms among those surveyed: the good, the bad, and the ugly.

[1]The Appendix contains a complete list of companies whose job application forms were included in the survey. Because several firms used the same standardized forms the total number of different forms was slightly less than 50.

[2]Legal liability under anti-discrimination law arises as a result of the adverse impact which certain types of questions have on the employment potential of members of protected classes under both the Age Discrimination Employment Act and Title VII of the Civil Rights Act.

The body of this paper will develop this typology through the use of stereotypical examples from each category. Although this approach tends to emphasise extremes, it best illustrates the gap between the best and the worst in job application forms. In focusing on this gap, one goal is to provoke a reassessment of employment screening questions on the part of some employers. There is however another underlying purpose in this approach. This is the goal of encouraging an open dialogue concerning the evolving nature of job application forms.

THE GOOD

While there were some notable exceptions, the better quality job application forms bore the names of the larger companies surveyed. These firms obviously had the resources to devote attention to the appearance of their forms and they exhibited a cognizance of potential liabilities under anti-discrimination law that could result from certain types of questions. Furthermore, many employers demonstrated an awareness that the application document can actually serve a number of distinct purposes.

Some of the better forms were printed in multi-color offset type and contained an introduction which explained the employer's need for various types of information. In general, these forms asked questions clearly and provided ample space for the applicant to respond. It was also characteristic of these forms that they sought information about the applicant's background which was clearly job related. It is a cardinal principle of the relevant case law on employment screening enquiries that questions must be job related and/or predictive of performance. Nevertheless, employers are permitted to ask questions which are not job related, if the information sought is not to be used for employment screening. Among those applications surveyed, some used sophisticated means of asking otherwise problematic types of questions.

One method was the use of two part forms, where one section sought information which was strictly for use in employment screening. This portion asked no questions that would have an adverse impact on protected classes or that would require a response which would be indicative of the applicant's race, age, religion, or national origin. At the same time, a detachable portion of the form contained questions whose response would be indicative of these aspects of an applicant's background. As this portion was designed to be used exclusively for Equal Employment Opportunity recordkeeping and not for employment screening, potential legal pitfalls were thereby avoided. Similarly, other job application forms specifically instructed employees to answer only "non-indicative" questions in the application phase, explaining that other "indicative" questions would be answered only if the employee were actually hired. It was also notable that the more recently updated job application

forms contained questions and requests for documentation regarding the citizenship of prospective employees. These sorts of questions, which would have almost certainly been considered a violation of Title VII until very recently, are now required in accordance with the provisions of the new Immigration Reform and Control Act.

A final characteristic which was exhibited by the more sophisticated job application forms was the tendency to use the information contained in the document, as well as the document itself, for more than one purpose. Besides the above-mentioned practice of having one form for screening and another detachable form for Equal Employment Opportunity recordkeeping, many employers clearly put the forms to other uses. It was relatively common for employers to reproduce I.R.S. Form W4, the Employee Withholding Allowance Certificate, on a detachable portion of the job application. Furthermore, many employers incorporated the basic terms of the prospective employee's contract of employment in a short paragraph to be read and signed at the bottom of the form.[3] A final example of ingenuity in this regard is evidenced by the practice of some employers in designing their forms so that they could actually become an employee's personnel file or folder. While it is surprising that many of these innovations have not been more widely adopted by employers, this issue will be dealt with in greater detail in the concluding analysis.

THE BAD

Unless a job application form explicitly indicates otherwise, the courts will presume that every question which is asked has some impact on the decision whether to employ a particular individual. As a result, employers must be cautious not to ask questions that would have an adverse impact on the hiring potential of statutorily protected classes or that would unnecessarily reveal an individual's status as a member of a protected class. While it is possible for employers to defend their need for such information on the basis of business necessity[4] or a bona fide

[3]Apart from the almost universal practice of employers in clarifying the "at-will" status of prospective employees, other types of clauses and covenants were common. These included agreements which provided for polygraph testing on demand which were common in the banking industry, as well as "non-compete" agreements which were often a feature of sales and data management positions.

[4]This is a defense which is not established by statute. Instead, it emerged from the early case law under Title VII. See Griggs v. Duke Power Co., 401 U.S. 424 (1971).

occupational qualification,[5] these legal defenses are very narrow and offer only limited protection. Nevertheless, it was clear from a preliminary analysis of the applications surveyed that the failure by many employers to appreciate this potential liability was the most common fault exhibited by bad job application forms. Some examples may help to illustrate the nature of this problem and the consequent issue of employer liability.

Several job applications asked the height of the applicant. When hiring decisions are based on a minimum height requirement, the courts recognize that there will usually be some adverse impact on Hispanic or Asian-Americans.[6] Similarly, the numerous forms which asked applicants to specify date of birth or asked information from which date of birth could readily be extrapolated[7] could give rise to an unfavorable legal presumption should an applicant allege a violation of the Age Discrimination in Employment Act. Moreover, even the extremely common type of question which seeks information concerning arrests and convictions could be viewed as having an impermissible adverse impact on some racial and ethnic minorities in those instances where employment is not based on any type of fiduciary relationship.[8]

Although the existence of legal liability for including these sorts of questions is contingent upon an employee's ability to demonstrate an indefensible adverse impact, it is important for employers to note that intent is irrelevant where an employee is successful in this regard. In other words, employers must carefully monitor the impact of their own screening enquiries to make certain that even those questions which have no discriminatory intent and are neutral on their face, do not have an adverse impact on any protected classes.

While, in fairness, it can be assumed that many of the employers asking "bad" questions on their job application forms have, in fact, been monitoring the impact of their screening practices, it is also safe to assume that others have not. For those companies

[5]This defense only relates to religion, sex and national origin and is provided for in section 703(e) of the Civil Rights Act.

[6]See, for example, Davis v. County of Los Angeles, 556 F. 2d 1334 (C.A. 9, 1977).

[7]For example, many job application forms asked the dates when high school or college diplomas were attained. It is very likely that the courts would also find these sorts of questions to be impermissible since they provide a clear indication of the age of nearly all applicants.

[8]See, for example Gregory v. Litton Systems Inc. (D.C. Cal., 1970) 2 EPD para. 10,264.

who do undertake this type of investigation, particularly if it involves complex validation studies,[9] there can be considerable costs involved. On the other hand, for those employers who choose to neglect this increasingly important personnel management function, far more substantial costs await them when they are served with their first law suit under Title VII.

THE UGLY

In terms of form and appearance, there was a surprising number of applications which were found to be deficient. Their inadequacies ranged from illegibility to illiteracy. Moreover, the category of ugly also included applications which left so little space for response that even the smallest handwriting would not have sufficed to fit responses into the spaces provided. Although, not unsightly before their completion, responses to questions on forms such as these would no doubt be cramped and illegible.

It is hard to imagine a more effective means of making a bad first impression on prospective employees than by handing them a thoroughly unprofessional looking job application form. Nevertheless, this was a common practice among the employers surveyed. There were several forms that had been photocopied so many times that they were illegible in parts. Others contained spelling and syntactical errors or bore the names of defunct corporate predecessors. Moreover, this last type of fault reflected a much broader practice of using old and outdated forms: documents that not only failed to reflect important legal developments but that also appeared antiquated and yellowed by time.

A final dimension of the ugliness of some forms was their minimalist nature. Besides the relatively common problem of forms that provided insufficient space for responses, some employers used applications which were printed on 3 x 5 index cards. There are two clear problems with this practice. One is that it is insulting to prospective employees to indicate that the employer wants to know nothing more about them than what can be written on an index card. The other is the difficulty in defending hiring decisions which are based on so little information.

[9] A company may use employment screening enquiries which have a demonstrable adverse impact if it can be shown statistically that such enquiries are valid predictors of job performance.

CONCLUSION

Although this preliminary research reveals little about the actual extent of deficient job application forms, a more elaborate study is planned whose purpose will be to collect and analyze these documents on a broader geographic and industrial basis. Nevertheless, it is readily apparent from the findings of this pilot project that many employers exhibit a negligent disregard for the legal and employee relations implications of their job applications. Despite the significant innovations in form and content reflected in some applications, there was no indication that the importance of these developments is widely appreciated by employers. In view of the ease with which companies can incorporate these innovations into the employment screening process, it is perplexing that more have not done so.

What, then, can the average employer do to avoid legal pitfalls and optimize the utility of job application forms? Careful scrutiny of the form currently in use is an important first step. Questions that are indicative of membership in a protected class or that may have an indefensible adverse impact on the hiring potential of these groups should be eliminated immediately. If an employer is averse to striking out such questions or instructing prospective employees not to answer them, another simple alternative exists. There are several standardized applications readily available from printers of business forms which are well designed and reflect an appreciation of the various sources of legal liability.[10] These sorts of forms are also ideal for smaller companies that do not have the resources to compose and print their own job applications. A final step which employers should consider is making applications serve other purposes besides providing information for employment screening. There are a number of clear administrative and legal advantages in adopting the multi-purpose approach which was outlined above.

While this paper was primarily intended to provoke some introspection on the part of employers, it was also designed to spark some debate about what employers should and should not be allowed to ask prospective employees. No doubt many employers resent what they see to be interference on the part of the E.E.O.C. and the courts. Although some of this resentment is understandable, it remains incomprehensible that so many employers continue to ignore the practical and legal problems caused by deficiencies in their forms. As these problems are relatively easy to remedy, it can only be assumed that inactivity in this regard is indicative of more deeply rooted misconceptions.

[10]Of the standardized forms examined, the overall best was Amsterdam Printing and Litho Corporation's Form #23960.

Several possibilities spring to mind. One is the naive assumption on the part of managers that it will happen to other companies but not their own. Another is the attitude of many managers that because they do not intentionally discriminate against anyone, that there is no danger of litigation. Furthermore, it certainly is true of some of the smaller firms that management feels there are insufficient resources available to devote much attention to this sort of issue. One final and very credible possibility, however, relates to the reactive mode of management adopted by many companies. Implicit in the corporate ethos of some firms is the notion that pro-active steps designed to avoid potential problems represent unnecessary changes to the status quo. Unfortunately for these companies, the real necessity for these pro-active measures is not apparent until litigation is pending in Federal Court.

APPENDIX

Employers Whose Applications Were Surveyed

Adam's Mark Caribbean Beach Hotel

Avis Car Rentals Inc.

Barnett Bank

Bentley's Luggage and Gifts Inc.

Budget Car Rentals Inc.

Burdines Inc.

Burger King Corporation

City of Tampa

Clearwater Community Hospital

Continental Airlines

Domino's Pizza

Eckerd Drug Company

El Torito Restaurants Inc.

First Florida Bank

Florida Choice Corporation

Florida Power Corporation

G.C.C. Theaters Inc.

Globe Imports Inc.

H. Lee Moffitt Cancer Center

Hardee's Corporation

Home Shopping Network Inc.

J. Byrons Inc.

Johnson and Johnson Company

Julie's Cafe

K-Mart Stores Inc.

Kapok Tree Restaurant

Kraft Corporation

Lerner Corporation

Little Ceasars Inc.

Maas Brothers of Florida Inc.

Major League Lanes

Michigan Stations Inc.

National Council on Compensation Insurance

Peaches Records and Tapes Inc.

PoFolks Corporation

Publix Supermarkets Inc.

R. Dalton Inc.

Rax Restaurants

Robby's Sports Inc.

Sports Unlimited

Sun Dome Inc.

T G I Friday's Inc.

Telecredit Inc.

Texaco Oil Corporation

The Home Depot Inc.

The Hungry Fisherman Restaurant

The Tribune Company

University of South Florida Library

Vision Cable of Pinellas

Visionworks Corporation

Winn-Dixie Stores Inc.

APPENDIX

1988 Southeast Regional Conference Program

95

ASSOCIATION FOR BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

Southeast Regional Conference

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Southeast Regional Conference

ASSOCIATION FOR BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

Thursday, February 25

Noon to 5 PM — Registration and check in; Holiday Inn, Cypress St. Foyer

Communication Technology in Action

Birchwood

"The Disney Approach to Communication"

1:15-2:00
sps

Discusses Disney's communication tools for employees, psychological effect of the company's jargon, and communication of company image . . .

Andrea Wise, Georgia College
Doris D. Phillips, University of Mississippi

2:00-2:45 **"Changing Needs in Speakers' Bureau Training: Assessment and Response"**
sps
vcm

Using Their experience with Florida Power, presenters discuss how changing community outreach and speaker competence can be improved in other corporations.

Carol J. Jablonski, University of South Florida;
Nancy Loehr, Florida Power Corporation

Session co-ordinator: Linda Munilla, Georgia Southern College

Cypress Cove — **15 min. Refreshment Break—Exhibitors' Area**
Sponsored by **Tampa Electric —TECO**

3:00-3:45 **"Office Technology in Business Communication Textbooks"**
ops

Discusses coverage in texts over the past ten years; identifies trends and recommends better awareness of the human factor.

Richard M. Hodgetts, Florida International University;
Jane Whitney Gibson, Nova University

3:50-4:45 **"Corporate Conduct: The Importance of Proper Etiquette and Communication"**
ops

Emphasis on the corporate culture as manifested in correspondence, social skills, and public interaction.

Glenna A. Dod and **Susan L. Fay**, Wesleyan College, Macon

Session co-ordinator: Frank Ryerson, University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa

Thursday, February 25

Communication Technology . . .in the Classroom and Workplace

Timberwood

1:15-2:00
IBM-PC
& ops

"Creating CAI's To Use in the Classroom"

Discussion and demonstration of student-generated software for the teaching of English grammar and other applications.

Bonnie Bellamy Howard, University of Georgia

2:00-2:45

vcm

" Teaching Communication Techniques Through Videos"

Discusses the effective implementation of using video tapes integrated with lectures and other traditional teaching.

Jennie Lou Hunter, Western Carolina University

Session co-ordinator: Meada Gibbs, North Carolina A & T State University

Cypress Cove

15 min. Refreshment Break—Exhibitors' Area
Sponsored by **Gulf Controls, Inc.**

3:00-3:45

ops

"Writing for Publication"

Discussion of practitioner's approach to planning, writing and submitting manuscripts--steps which enhance the possibilities of publication. Deals with four key questions.

Betty R. Ricks, Old Dominion University

3:50-4:45

"Establishing a System for Technical Editing"

Presents a system for technical editing adapted to engineers, extrapolated from Buehler's "Defining Terms in Technical Editing: The Levels of Edit As A Model."

Marlene A. Hobel, Camp Dresser & McKee, Inc.(Maitland); **Kathy L. Urbach,** Camp Dresser & McKee,Inc. (Atlanta)

Session co-ordinator: Donald Rogers, Rollins College

Friday, February 26

9:00-Noon &
2:00- 5:00 Registration and check-in; Holiday Inn, Cypress Street Foyer

Technology--Effect on Communication

Birchwood 9:00-10:00 **"Biased Language in the Workplace: Are Managers Meeting the Challenge?"**

Inappropriate verbiage on the job may lead to legal problems. The presenters review the results of a recent survey conducted among members of American Society of Personnel Administration [ASPA].

Linda Munilla and **Lloyd Dosier**, Georgia Southern College

Session co-ordinator: Glenna Dod, Wesleyan College, Macon, GA

Cypress Cove **15 min. Refreshment Break—Exhibitors' Area**
Sponsored by **Fowler, White, Gillen, Boggs, Villareal, & Banker, P.A.**

10:15-11:50 **"Managing Communication in Companies With Differing Organizational Structures"**

Focuses on how to manage communication effectively regardless of organizational structure. Reviews the impact of both formal and informal communication in mechanistic and organic models.

C. Glenn Pearce, Virginia Commonwealth University

Session co-ordinator: Robert D. Gieselman, University of Illinois Urbana-Champaign

Technology in Teaching

Pinewood
9:00-9:45 **"Business Communication—A Strategic Approach"**

Presentation is innovative in using strategic approach for oral, written, and electronic communication. The strategy incorporates five major components and subparts.

John J. Stallard, University of Georgia
E. Ray Smith, Western Illinois University
Sandra Price, Oakwood College

Session co-ordinator: Dorothy Wilkinson

9:45-10:00 **15 min. Refreshment Break—Exhibitors' Area**
Sponsored by **Carlton, Fields, Ward, Emmanuel, Smith, Cutler & Kent, P.A.**
Cypress Cove

Friday, February 26

Pinewood
10:15-11:40- **"Bringing the Technology of Communication into Business Communication"**

sps

Explores four aspects: (1) the need for the study, (2) communication personnel, (3)channel selection, and (4) summary of results based on survey data.

Judy Nixon and **Judy West,** University of Tennessee at Chatanooga

Session co-ordinator: J.C. Stevens, Stetson University

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Noon to 1:30
Banyan

Luncheon and Program

1:30- 3:00
Room T B A

General Business Meeting

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Technology: Problems and Solutions

Birchwood
3:00-3:50 **"Ethics, Codes, Crimes, and Communication"**

ops

Examines what ethics has to do with communication Neither behavioral codes nor corporate crimes determine ethical behavior as effectively as careful communication which may provide a far better measure.

Gary Shaw, University of Virginia

4:00-4:50 **"How To Organize, Market, and Deliver a Profitable Seminar in Time Management"**

ops
sps
vcm

The success of professionals depends not only on development of technical and interpersonal skills, but also on the way they manage their time. The presenters show how to train personnel to teach time management to employees.

Claude D. Renshaw and **William N. Shannon III**
Saint Mary's College, Notre Dame

Session co-ordinator: Mary E. Blake, College of Charleston

Friday, February 26

Technology in Process

Birchwood
3:00-3:50 **"A Collaborative Writing Project at Kennesaw College"**

ops Presentation of a project designed for large sections/groups of students who must work together to produce outlines, formal reports, and oral presentations.

Deborah Roebuck, Kennesaw College, Marietta, GA

4:00-4:50 **"The Impact of Deregulation and Divestiture on Telecommunication Systems and Networks"**

ops In addition to reviewing the anxieties associated with deregulation, the presenters discuss management's challenge of selecting the best alternative from a wide array of organizational information systems.

Binford H. Peeples and **Glynna E. Morse**
Memphis State University

Session co-ordinator:
Joan McCoy, Southern College of Technology

6:00-7:00 **Wine and Cheese Reception**
Cypress Cove Sponsored by **South-Western College Division**

Saturday, February 27

Technology in Applications

Pinewood
9:00-9:45 **"Check Your Communication Skills: Will You Survive As A Manager?"**

The critical importance of communication to the manager who must be understood at all levels of the organization.

Carolyn Roberts, Pembroke State University

9:50-10:40 **"You Ought To Be In Pictures"**

sps Presenters discuss nonverbal communication and body language which may be detrimental to employment and effective interpersonal relations. Kinesics, intonation and pitch, and nonverbal statements are reviewed.

Bonnie Bellamy Howard, University of Georgia
Alexa Bryans North, Georgia State University

Session co-ordinator: Pat Campbell, University of Tennessee

Cypress Cove **15 min. Refreshment Break—Exhibitors' Area**
Sponsored by the **Tampa Tribune**

Saturday, February 27

Technology in Applications

Pinewood 11:05-11:50 **"No Comment: The Art of Avoiding the Question"**

Based on experiences with International Paper, Teledyne, Continental Motors, and Ciba-Geigy, the author discusses ten ways to avoid a question.

Daniel McDonald, University of South Alabama

Session co-ordinator: Alexa Bryans North, Georgia State

Birchwood 9:00-9:45 **"Teaching Business Report Writing Deductively"**

Presenter recommends a deductive approach to teaching business writing wherein students analyze finished reports and then consider such preliminaries as syntax and word usage.

Tom Loughman, Columbus College

9:50-10:40 **"The Effect of Style on Comprehension and Memory: Results of Exploratory Research"**

ops

The presenters explored whether altering accustomed style had an impact on the reader's ability to retain information from a written document. The project generated statistically reliable data which indicated a negative impact on information retention when predictable style is significantly altered.

Kenneth McCroan, Dwayne Pepper, Barret Shiff
Auburn University at Montgomery

Session co-ordinator: Zan Whitman, Tallahassee College

Cypress Cove **15 min. Refreshment Break—Exhibitors' Area**
Sponsored by **Random House/ Alfred A. Knopf**

Birchwood 11:00-11:45 **"Job Application Forms: The Good, The Bad, And The Ugly"**

Presenter discusses continuing bias and illegalities in job application forms, from the perspective of a labor lawyer with a doctorate in labor relations.

Mark Sherman, University of South Florida

Session co-ordinator: Bonnie Bellamy Howard
University of Georgia

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